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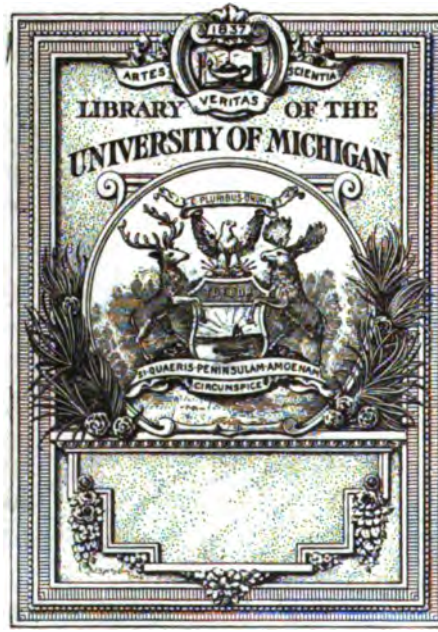
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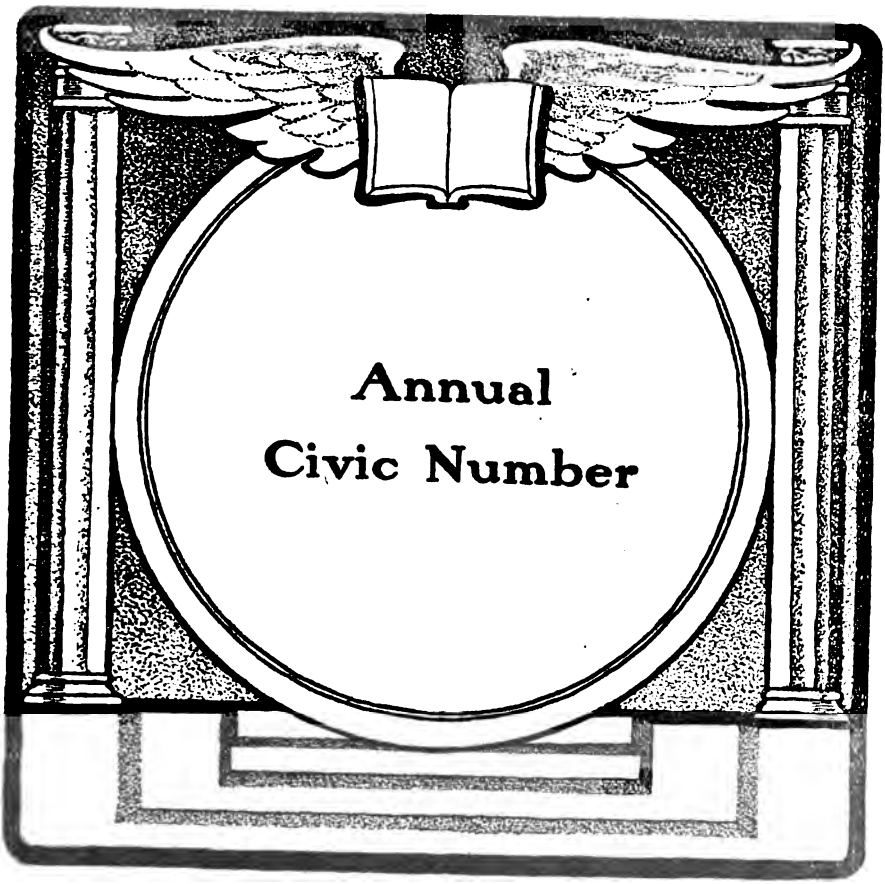

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Hall of Sculptures, Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York

(See American Art Museums, page 82.)

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INTEREST has lately been stimulated to a gratifying degree in the movement for the conservation of the natural resources of the country—a movement that may be properly regarded as parallel to and even more important than that of the development of the waterways or the utilization, by irrigation, of the barren and waste lands of the dry regions of the United States. In the past forestry and its related problems received merely academic attention; the country was too rich, too young, too strenuous to think in a practical way about the dangers of deforestation and ruthless timber cutting. Now, however, chambers of commerce, scientific societies, clubs and other bodies are supporting the demand for an enlightened and careful forest policy in the interest of agriculture, manufacturing industries, protection from floods, preservation of water power, health and natural beauty. Congress has been memorialized by many states and by commercial interests to create forest reserves in the Appalachian and White Mountain regions in order to stop the devastation that has been going on there for decades. There are, of course, well-known precedents for the establishment of such reserves, but the proposition just named involves peculiar constitutional questions and the lawmakers are divided upon its validity.

But whatever the means available may be, the general end is one with which no one not selfishly concerned in the destruction of forests can fail to sympathize. All must indorse the demand recently formulated by the Union League Club of Chicago, for example, in these words:

"Resolved, That a census of the standing timber in the United States should be authorized by Congress and that the states should be urged to coöperate with the nation for the preservation and enlargement of our forest resources, by the adoption of uniform forest laws and systems for fire protection, and the preservation and right use of the forests, and that forestry, irrigation, drainage, flood protection, water storage and river regulation and control for navigation and water power should be regarded as one great interrelated subject in all legislative and executive policies."

As part of the new policy toward the conservation of natural resources President Roosevelt, one of its most energetic advocates, has announced that he would veto dam construction bills that conferred water-power monopolies on private persons without compensation or regulation. The giving away of the public heritage, he declared, should stop, and water power has as much value as coal or oil. Henceforth there is to be a limit to such privileges, opportunity for revision of the grants, control, and the exaction of reasonable compensation, after the manner of municipal franchises to traction, gas, and electric companies.

The country is still rich and vigorous, but that is no argument for reckless waste, for the breeding of monopoly, or for giving to the few natural wealth that properly belongs to the nation as a whole. The states have been called upon to coöperate with the federal government in giving effect to the policy of checking greed and safeguarding the utilization of the natural resources with reference to the general welfare and the future needs of the country.

The conference at the White House participated in by the Governors, distinguished citizens and federal officials, is expected to have lasting and beneficial results.

State Laws and Federal Injunctions

That not everything that is lawful is expedient and desirable is illustrated afresh by the measure to restrict the power of the lower federal courts in the issuance of injunctions to suspend or annul state laws and restrain state officers from seeking to enforce such laws by proceedings in state courts. In recent cases the federal Supreme Court held that where a state act is attacked on constitutional grounds a federal judge having jurisdiction of the case may issue an injunction to prevent not only the enforcement of the statute complained of as oppressive, unreasonable and confiscatory, but also the testing of it in the state courts. Eight of the justices declared that in such exercise of the power of the federal courts there was no invasion of state rights, for it is not within the province of states to enforce invalid laws.

Notwithstanding this decision it is widely felt that the careless and frequent issuance of injunctions suspending state laws is detrimental to sound public policy and fraught with danger of discord and confusion. An outgrowth of this feeling is the bill which passed the Senate practically without opposition and which limits the power of the "lower court" judges in the direction in question. The bill provides first, that any application for an injunction to suspend a state act shall be heard by three judges, two of whom shall be judges of circuit courts, and that the majority of the court so formed shall have the power to issue the order asked; that notice to the state shall be given whenever the circumstances permit it, and, finally, that an appeal shall lie from decisions in such injunction cases to the supreme court.

The lower federal courts being the "creature of Congress," the latter's right to impose such limitations is beyond doubt. And the theory of the measure is that its restrictions will prevent hasty, ill-considered and arbitrary injunctions derogatory to the dignity of states and state courts.

Surprises in the Political Situation

Political life is always uncertain and full of the unexpected, and especially so in presidential campaign years. At this writing the general expectation still is that Secretary Taft will be nominated by the Republican convention and Mr. Bryan by the Democratic, but all recognize that the situation is not what it was two months ago. Surprising developments have undoubtedly taken place.

Mr. Taft is actually stronger in spite of continued opposition from some directions. The Roosevelt third-term boomers are less aggressive and less confident, though they have by no means given up hope. Certain rival candidates have failed to grow, even where the conditions seemed favorable. For example, the boom of Gov. Hughes has disappointed many of his admirers. It has not made much progress even in New England. Several circumstances may be assigned to explain this fact, but the fact is beyond doubt, though Mr. Hughes has continued to manifest independence, courage, good judgment, hostility to vice, graft, corruption, and has steadily worked for important moral and industrial reforms in the teeth of obstruction and opposition.

Little has been heard of the Knox candidacy. That of Speaker Cannon has also suffered an eclipse. There is more apparent vigor in the La Follette boom, but it is plain that the progressive Republicans of the West are ranging themselves more and more on the Taft side.

The real surprises, however, are those seen in the Democratic campaign for the nomination. Whereas some months ago Mr. Bryan was regarded as a certain winner of the prize, today he is facing real, widespread and serious opposition. The boom of Gov. Johnson of Minnesota has made much headway, and in several instances it has prevented instructions for Mr. Bryan. It is an exaggeration so say, as some observers do, that the latter is fighting for his life as Democratic leader, but it is true that doubt has arisen as to whether he will have two-thirds of the delegates in the convention,

as least on the first ballot. Mr. Bryan, who believes absolutely in popular rule, in honest fighting and legitimate victories, repudiates all talk of hostility to rival candidates. He will not, he has said emphatically, resist the spontaneous choice of the majority of his party. He is a candidate if the majority thinks he is the best man for the time and occasion, but he will stand aside and support any man whom the majority of the party may prefer. What he objects to is the domination of bosses and selfish cliques, misrepresentation and fraud. He demands the presentation of Democratic principles by the party, and in his judgment the "conservatives" who are hostile to his candidacy are not Democrats in any honest sense of the term. Whatever the next few weeks may bring, it is certain that Mr. Bryan will have sufficient strength in the convention to prevent the success of anyone that he and his followers regard as a reactionary. None of his rivals can expect anything like a majority of the delegates, and therefore no one can obtain the nomination without Mr. Bryan's help and indorsement. Some of Mr. Bryan's supporters, in order to prevail over the opposition, are prepared to abrogate the Democratic rule requiring a two-thirds majority of the delegates to nominate the candidates. This, however, may not be necessary. Any other candidate than Bryan, it is felt, would be deserted by legions of radical Democrats.

In the last few weeks the discussion of candidacies and persons has obscured the issues of the next campaign. There has been considerable political oratory, but no new ideas have been presented.

The Populist Party Today

An interesting chapter in the history of American politics may be furnished by the career, up to date, of the Populist Party. It has held a national convention, nominated a presidential ticket and adopted a new platform. Its candidate is again Mr. Thomas A. Watson, who was the

Populist nominee for the same office four years ago, while its platform contains some novel planks, the outgrowth of new developments in our political and national life. The question that has been asked by many is whether the party still contains elements of vigor and growth, or has entered upon its decline and extinction. The next elections may decide the fate of Populism as a distinct entity and answer that question for current discussion as well as for history. The leaders of the party do not admit that its mission is ended or its work done, and predict an increased vote for their ticket.

The Populist party attained to its maximum of strength and prestige in 1892, when it carried several states, elected senators and representatives, governors and state lawmakers, and polled a million votes for its presidential candidate, Weaver. Since then it has been impossible to ascertain definitely either its numerical or moral strength.

In 1896 the Populists "fused" with the Democrats and supported Bryan for the presidency, though they had a ticket of their own. Many of them, however, voted the Democratic ticket and this affected the "straight" Populist vote. In 1900 the Populists again fused with the Democrats and only one faction, called "the middle-of-the-road" Populists, put a ticket in the field. The vote for that ticket was small, but as an index it was of no value. In the last presidential election the Populists acted on their own account again, as in 1902, but they polled only 117,000 votes. The explanation that was given at the time was that the great popularity of the Roosevelt policies had caused many thousands of western Populists to return to the Republican party.

This year the political conditions are likely to be peculiar. The great parties stand for progressive policies, a new party, the Independence, is in the field, and much that is found in the Populist platform is not as strange and radical to the average man as it once was. Between the Independ-

ence and Populist principles the difference is not easily discoverable, except that the latter party demands legislation depriving federal courts of the power of nullifying acts of Congress approved by the executive, which is a very bold and "new" proposal.

As we have already said, there will be a number of "minor" parties in the field this year, and whether they represent real needs and sentiments only the returns can tell us.

The Old-Age Pension Problem

In France the parliamentary majority has served notice on the ministry that the bill providing for old-age pensions for workmen and certain other classes must be passed this year. It has been before parliament for three years, and has been amended and re-amended a number of times, the senate insisting on restrictions and limitations to prevent excessive demands on the national treasury.

Concessions have at last been made by both chambers, and the bill will doubtless become law. Under it employers and employes will be required to make annual payments into the pension fund, and the state will not only care for and invest the fund but contribute certain sums from its own revenues. Not more than $20,000,000 a year is to be contributed at present, though eventually the state's contribution may reach higher figures. No political group in France opposes the bill in principle, but the question of cost terrifies many of the moderate politicians. How can the republic find money for such social reforms when the resources of taxation are exhausted and the navy and army constantly require fresh sacrifices in view of Germany's swelling defence budgets and the failure of all plans to limit military expenditures or armaments? Besides, if workmen and farm laborers are to be pensioned at the age of 65, will not those now excluded raise the bitter cry of neglect and discrimination, and will not the next agitation be for "universal" pensions?

In England the French scheme, with contributions from the workmen and certain moral tests, is very unpopular. Some are indeed advocating similar systems, but the labor party and the advanced liberals demand a "noncontributory" and universal system at the expense of the whole nation. The government has pledged itself to introduce a pension bill and make at least a modest beginning. It is being severely attacked in some quarters for this "weak surrender to socialism," as some writers put it, but in point of fact there is as much sentiment for old-age pensions among the tories as there is among the liberals. What the outsome of the discussion will be no one has attempted to foretell, but it is certain that even the lords will sanction a reasonable pension system.

Canada, in spite of her youth, has felt the need of some such system, in order to encourage thrift and do away with the dread of destitution in old age. Her government has proposed an annuity plan that involves no contribution from the public treasury. In the United States legislatures have discussed proposals for voluntary and compulsory pension systems, though nowhere has the stage of action been reached. The world over the old-age pension problem is regarded as vital and pressing, and only the military burdens under which the leading nations stagger prevent large and liberal pension schemes from being offered by the great parties.

England's New Premier and Reconstructed Cabinet

The resignation of the premiership by Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman was not unexpected when it came, for the late premier's health had been bad for many months and his grave condition had necessitated prolonged absence. Nor was the promotion of Mr. Herbert H. Asquith, chancellor of the exchequer, to the premiership a surprise. Mr. As-

Hon. Herbert H. Asquith, new Prime Minister of England.

John Morley, who has accepted a Peerage. He retains his position as Secretary for India.

Winston Churchill, President of the Board of Trade.

The Hon. David Lloyd George, new Chancellor of the Exchequer.

Changes in the English Cabinet necessitated by the retirement of the late Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, formerly Prime Minister.

quith had been the leader of the liberals in the commons during the premier's enforced vacations and had been regarded as the strongest and most masterful man in the liberal government. He was the "logical candidate" for the position, though John Morley—now Viscount Morley, strangely enough, for who would have believed that Mr. Morley would accept a title and a transfer to the House of Lords?—was held by many in greater esteem for his literary gifts and his philosophical temper, his intellectual and winning candor.

Regret at the retirement of the aged and lovable Sir Henry, a man of rare political tact, courage, fidelity to conviction, and ample experience, was sincere and general, yet all felt that the liberal party had reached a critical stage and needed more firm and aggressive leadership. Mr. Asquith is a man of positive views and direct methods. He may not succeed as a composer and harmonizer of factional differences; he may be lacking in diplomacy and suavity; but he will fight the opposition as hard as it was ever fought and if success be possible to his party in parliament and at the polls he is the man to win it.

Mr. Asquith, it is true, is an imperialist and an "old school" liberal. He is supposed to have but little sympathy with "social legislation" and reform through regulation and political action. There are those who predict a rupture between his friends and the radical wing of the party over labor and other advanced legislation. But he has given two of the best places in his reconstructed cabinet to younger and more ardent liberals—to Mr. Lloyd George, the Welshman, and Mr. Winston Churchill. Both are progressive and bold, and both believe that no modern government can long command confidence without enlisting and holding what a competent political observer has described as "the emotional and imaginative forces which are the dynamic agent in politics."

It is practically certain that Mr. Asquith will continue

the policies of his predecessor and endeavor to realize the program as originally outlined. He will have to satisfy the radicals and the working classes; he will be forced to bow to conditions and overcome some of his personal objections to "paternalism," and this all the more on account of the palpable readiness of the tory party to outbid the liberals in "social reform." In short, during the remainder of the life of the present parliament no departure of moment in liberal policy is to be anticipated.

The major questions to be dealt with are these: education, temperance and the licensing of saloons, an eight-hour day for coal miners, Irish university education, housing of the poor in the congested cities, and old-age pensions. Opposition to most of these and other liberal measures has developed sufficiently to indicate more than one contest between the Commons and the Lords. The liquor trade is furiously fighting the attempt to abolish, after a period of sixteen years, the curious English idea of a "vested property right" in a saloon license, and the more extreme organs of the trade argue that the state has no more right to take away property in the form of license to sell liquor than to take away franchises granted in perpetuity of freehold titles. The "trade" is wealthy and powerful and commands votes. Among the middle-class taxpayers there is dissatisfaction with the pension scheme and other "social reform" proposals of the liberals, who are charged with surrendering to labor and radicalism.

Thus, the new cabinet will have more than one storm to weather, and another series of defeats in by-elections would hamper and discourage it. Yet it cannot dissolve parliament with a barren record and must endeavor to realize the promises upon which the liberal party was placed in power at the last election. If the Lords shall annul and veto most of the government's major bills, that very fact will give the liberals a paramount issue for the next campaign. Premier Asquith is committed to restriction of upper-house power, and is certain to "force the fighting."

Clouds in the Far East

Immediately after the conclusion of peace between Japan and Russia there was much talk of "the Japanization of China." The yellow race, it was thought, would welcome the leadership of the victorious Japanese and avail themselves of their moral and military prestige in a pacific but determined movement against western encroachments. For a time the facts appeared to justify this forecast, but of late the developments have been conducive to anything but harmony and unity among the yellow races.

In the first place, China feels that the principles of the Portsmouth treaty have not been carried out either by Japan or Russia. The "armies" have indeed evacuated Manchuria, but owing to the railroad interests of these powers in their respective "spheres" and the number of soldiers deemed necessary as guards, China finds a good deal of Manchuria still under Russian or Japanese control. She is far from being master in her own house. All sorts of claims to administrative control, to exclusive rights of railroad and commercial development, to control postal facilities are set up by the powers named, and Chinese sovereignty is only a name. The United States has had to challenge, throught its consul at Harbin, Mr. Fisher, the assumption of political power by the Japanese and Russians in Manchuria. Theoretically the Manchurian railroads owned and operated by Russia and Japan are industrial and commercial enterprises; they may not be used for political purposes, and they carry no title to "zones," such as the United States acquired in Panama. But in practice it is difficult to separate railroad administration from politics and territorial control, especially in view of the number of soldiers, guards, workmen, and others attracted to the Manchurian centers by construction work. And it is believed that Japan and Russia are supporting each other in their claims under their railroad grants and leases not only as against the Peking government but as against neutral powers concerned in the

preservation of the open door and the territorial integrity of China. According to some Far Eastern correspondents, indeed, neither Japan nor Russia intends to leave Manchuria, so that the war may have for its sole result the "division" of the territory which Russia had tried to annex with her late enemy, at the expense of China. Whether the western powers can prevent this, or have the desire and intention of doing so, is open to doubt. Direct violations of the "open-door" principles, or of equality or commercial opportunity, by either of these powers would be resented, but encroachments on China's sovereign rights under technical claims and subterfuges are relatively safe at present.

Meanwhile other causes of friction have arisen between Japan and China, notably the seizure by the latter of a trading vessel flying the former's flag and bound for a Portuguese port in the Far East. The vessel carried arms and ammunition and was apparently engaged in lawful commerce. But the Chinese officials contended that the arms were intended for insurgents and secret plotters in China and confiscated the whole cargo. Technically they were wrong, and were obliged to apologize humbly, pay for the cargo, release the vessel and salute the flag they had dishonored. The Chinese felt, however, that the equities of the case was on their side, and Japan's stern attitude offended them. A boycott of Japanese goods, vessels, and firms has been organized by merchants, and it is said to be assuming threatening proportions. So long as the boycott is passive the government cannot interfere, while Japan has no palpable grievance. It is admitted that serious losses could be inflicted on Japan by a lasting boycott, as she sells to China goods valued at scores of millions, goods for which she can have no better and no readier purchaser. Hostility and ill will are inevitably engendered by such reprisals and popular conflicts, and in fact there is already too much evidence of a growing dislike of Japan in China. The "Asia contra Mundum" menace that some fear is not taking shape in a manner to vindicate the gloomy prophets, though the

situation itself in the extreme East is big with danger and mischief.

NOTE AND COMMENT.

The following correspondence published recently in *Collier's* has excited much comment throughout the country. In this, the annual civic number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, it seems appropriate to reprint the correspondence as an indication of the growing civic spirit in this country, the spirit which will make possible the success of the campaign against the billboard nuisance and corruption in city government to which the pages of this magazine are devoted. Mr. Kent is a public spirited citizen of Chicago.

From Mr. Kent, donating 295 acres of woodland to the Government:

"HON. JAMES R. GARFIELD, Secretary Interior, U. S.

"*Dear Sir*—I herewith enclose a deed of gift to a tract of land in Marin County, California, more fully described by accompanying documents, and request that you accept it as provided for by the Act of June 8, 1906. . . .

"After having traveled over a large part of the open country in the United States, I consider this tract, with its beautiful trees, ferns, wild flowers, and shrubs, as the most attractive bit of wilderness I have ever seen.

"In tendering it I request that it be known as Muir Woods, in honor of John Muir. . . .

"Yours respectfully,

"WILLIAM KENT."

From President Roosevelt, accepting the gift:

"THE WHITE HOUSE, Washington.

"*My dear Mr. Kent*—I thank you most heartily for this singularly generous and public-spirited action on your part. All Americans who prize the natural beauties of the country and wish to see them preserved undamaged, and especially those who realize the literally unique value of the groves of giant trees, must feel that you have conferred a great and lasting benefit upon the whole country.

"I have a very great admiration for John Muir; but after all, my dear sir, this is your gift. No other land than that which you give is included in this tract of nearly 300 acres, and I should greatly like to name the monument the Kent Monument if you will permit it.

"Sincerely yours,

"THEODORE ROOSEVELT."

From Mr. Kent, concerning vain men who make gifts:

"TO THE PRESIDENT, Washington.

"*My dear Mr. Roosevelt*—I thank you from the bottom of my heart for your message of appreciation, and hope and believe it will strengthen me to go on in an attempt to save more of the precious and vanishing glories of nature for a people too slow of perception.

"Your kind suggestion of a change of name is not one that I can accept. So many millions of better people have died for-

gotten that to stencil one's own name on a benefaction seems to carry with it an implication of mundane immortality, as being something purchasable.

"I have five good, husky boys that I am trying to bring up to a knowledge of democracy and to a realizing sense of the rights of the 'other fellow,' doctrines which you, sir, have taught with more vigor and effect than any man in my time. If these boys cannot keep the name of Kent alive, I am willing it should be forgotten.

"I have this day sent you by mail a few photographs of Muir Woods, and trust that you will believe, before you see the real thing (which I hope will be soon), that our nation has acquired something worth while.

"Yours truly,

"WILLIAM KENT."

From the President:

"THE WHITE HOUSE, Washington.

"*My dear Mr. Kent*—By George! you are right. It is enough to do the deed and not to desire, as you say, to 'stencil one's own name on the benefaction.' Good for you, and for the five boys who are to keep the name of Kent alive! I have four who I hope will do the same thing by the name of Roosevelt. Those are awfully good photos.

"Sincerely yours,

"THEODORE ROOSEVELT."

One of the unnoticed influences on the growth of sentiment in favor of civic beauty in this country, has been the grouping of college and university buildings. Small colleges, in particular, have as a rule, perhaps more or less unconsciously, taken advantage of natural sites, usually selecting some commanding position, and arranging their buildings to give the effect of a picture. This result of educational ideals is noteworthy, while the elaborate modern grouping plans of the larger universities from California eastward form a distinct contribution to public taste. A general plan officially approved and adopted by the board of trustees of Pennsylvania State College during the past year makes this comment pertinent. The report by Charles N. Lowrie, landscape architect, proposes as few changes as possible in existing conditions and a plan for gradual development over a long term of years. The central feature is a grouping of strictly public buildings in a terraced quadrangle, with six secondary groups to right and left above and below, all tributary but each complete in itself.

The constitutionality of the Des Moines plan of city government has within the last few months been sustained by the Iowa supreme court. A discussion of this plan will be found in the pages of this magazine. It is interesting to note that Cedar Rapids is also testing the Des Moines plan.

Billboards Versus Beauty

Public Indictments of the Billboard—Abuses Doomed — Camera Testimony — Lessons from Abroad—What Has Been and Can Be Done—Progress of Anti-Billboard Campaign.

Public sentiment against billboard abuses in the United States is finding expression in legislation and court decisions, as well as in the declared attitude of individuals and organizations. The growth of opposition to what is popularly and properly called the billboard nuisance, is one of the most striking developments of the past year. It remains to be determined how far higher courts will go in bringing billboards under legal definition as nuisances; this issue is clearly drawn in California At the same time various attempts at regulation, control, taxation, suppression, and boycott of billboard offenders have been made in city and country in response to agitation.

In this annual Civic Number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN we bring together material to indicate the progress of this movement, giving place chiefly to valuable and timely information from The American Civic Association in its noteworthy leadership of forces against despoilers of civic beauty.

Why Billboard Advertising as at Present Conducted is Doomed*

By J. Horace McFarland

President American Civic Association.

I should define good advertising an an economical method of securing favorable attention to persons, places or articles. For this discussion I construe billboards to include all forms of outdoor advertising display not relating to business conducted on the premises.

To advertising in general I can certainly enter no objection. On the contrary, I believe good advertising should be regarded as a vast educational force, influential for real progress. It is to billboard advertising, as at present conducted that objection is made. The root of the objection is not that it is advertising, of a sort, but that it is destructive of civic beauty and of natural beauty; that it is obtrusive and therefore offensive; that it educates in bad taste and in ugliness just when there is the strong beginning of a nation-wide movement toward good taste and beauty. Further, it is urged that present-day billboard advertising decreases property values, and frequently makes foolish and ineffective great public efforts and expenditures—as, for instance, when a vast Pabst beer sign completely dominates an entrance to Philadelphia's many million-dollar Fairmount Park.

It is the unreasonable obtrusiveness of existing billboard effort that creates the primary objection and works toward the eventual destruction of the signs. Where, in New York, for instance, has the sign man shown respect for public or private beauty, or any lack of desire to thrust his private gain-making enterprise upon all of the public not totally blind? The signs flaunt toward heaven, day and

*From an address at a dinner of the Sphinx Club (of advertising men), New York City.

night, and bitterly does the billposter resent the city's effort to keep him down to legal limits or to a decent height.

Do we ride on the surface cars? He boasts before our eyes that "the service we offer would discount the moon as a billboard."

Does the subway carry us? We are accompanied all the way by signs, and we are flanked by them, to the confusion and almost exclusion of the names of the stations, as we enter and depart.

Seek we the elevated? With difficulty do we discern the legend "up-town trains" hidden between boxes of Royal Baking Powder as we climb the dingy stairways. All sorts of color horrors meet us on the narrow space of the platform, where we cannot safely shut our eyes, and the trains depart between significant suggestions of Quaker Oats and Cascarets on one side, and Postum and Peruna on the other!

But recently the Fifth avenue stages resembled large bags of Bull Durham, periodically topped with the hats of the ladies who ride on them, while one ascended to the upper deck through a corkscrew of American tobacco. Here the limit was reached, even the New York worm turned, and the signs came off, obedient to an outraged public opinion reflected by a just judge.

But leaving the metropolis, do we escape the signs? Hardly; they are worse outside. To be sure, Liberty does not yet display a Rust-proof Corset, and the great Pennsylvania and New York Central railroads shut out the advertising men from their terminals. But several much weaker railroads eke out their scanty incomes by forcing their patrons to endure signs and slot machines with their other inefficiencies. Along the roads, however, all are alike begirt with whiskey, phonographs, fly screens, corsets, tobacco, beer and razors, often to the second and third tiers of shouting signs, between which one can but seldom see the landscape, because of the prevailing signscape—from which there is no escape!

The sun sets behind Crystal Domino sugar, and going

The Poster Nuisance on Trees.

Capital Park, Harrisburg, Pa., showing the treatment of trees in a political campaign. In many instances nails two and three inches long were used in fastening the posters.

A Niagara View.

Billboards on Canadian side as seen from American Steel Arch Bridge, Niagara Falls.

Signs on Seventh Avenue Bridge, between Pittsburg and Allegheny, Pa.

Next Door to the Church.
The First Baptist Church, Second and Adams Streets, Memphis, Tennessee.

At the City's Gateway, Providence, R. I.
The first impression the visitor gets, as this array of Billboards is just opposite the Railroad Station.

A Park Entrance.
Billboards at Dauphin street entrance to Fairmount Park, Philadelphia.

Facing the National Capitol.
Billboards directly opposite the Capitol on First street, Washington, D. C. Garfield Monument in distance.

Along Fifth Avenue.
Fifth avenue near Silo street, Pittsburg, Pa.

Adjoining the Business Section.
Twenty-third and Market Streets, Philadelphia, Pa.

Opposite the Boston Common.

Corner of Boylston and Tremont streets, Boston, Mass. (now removed).

A Decorated Water Front, Milwaukee.

Invasion of Panama Canal Zone.
Billboards near Railroad Station, City of Panama, Panama.

A.—Billboards at Mount Ida Lake, Troy, N. Y., shutting out a beautiful Lake View. (See "B" for the scene later.)

west, should one's eyes open in the early morning to view the famous Horseshoe Curve in the Pennsylvania Alleghenies, he will find the mountain scenery punctuated by Harvard beer and cheap clothing. His sense of outrage will not decrease when he learns that the great Pennsylvania Railroad abhors these signs, and does all in its power to prevent their indecent intrusion upon its enterprise.

Let the traveler indulge in no hope that the awe-inspiring grandeur of Niagara will daunt the vandals, for he sees the Falls with Coca Cola on the side, while Mennen's Toilet Powder hangs over the great gorge.

The famed beauties of America are hardly accessible to the traveler upon any railroad near large cities save as he may realize that they are behind the predominating billboards. Is it any wonder that a dialect artist, George V. Hobart has written thus:

"Mein Lieber Son, Looey—I haf receifed your letter from New Haven, und I notice vot you say dot your firm will spend next year someding like fife hunnert t'ousand dollars in atwertising.

"Atwertising is der incubator which hatches der golden egg, Looey, but at der same time I hate to see it stuck, like a lot of second-hand court plaster, all ofer der face of nature.

B.—After the Removal of the Billboards along the Shore of Mount Ida Lake, Troy, N. Y. (See "A.")

"I luff to read der atwertisements in der newspapers and magazines, but I also luff to be able to stop reading dem ven der supper bell rings, vich is not der case dese days if you vas traveling on der railroads.

"I dink der idea of changing a green hillside into a lecture on indichestion, und making all der pretty trees along der roadside point der branches in der direction of a drug store was wrong, but mebbe I haf too much poetieness in my weins und not enough pitzness.

"I took a ledle trip to Philadelphia on der cars last week, und it vas den dot dis idea struck me mit such forcibleness dot I haf to pull down der blind.

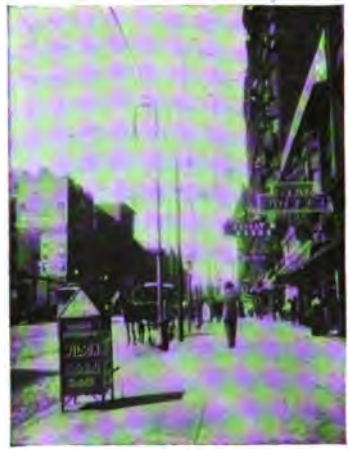
"I begun to look ouid der window to admire all der geography vich vas rushing py, und pefore I could see two spruce trees und abouid eighteen blades of grass a large sign chumped before my eyes und set, 'Sadust Fritters—Der New Breakfast Food—Vunce Swallowed, Nefer Forgotten.'

"I vinked my eyes a cubble of times und took annudder look, and dare, spread carelessly ofer der map, vas a sign vich set, 'Blonde Pills for Brainy People—Try Vun Box Und You Vill Nefer Try Annudder.'

"I dodged my eyes back into der car und glanched dem cautiously ouid der window on de uder side of der car, dare I saw it, 'Drink Binglebaur's Viskey—All Judges Say It Makes Trade Lifely.'

"For ten minutes I sat dare mit my eyes close-fisted, und den I took a ledle peep ouid der window,—vich resulted in a sign vich set, 'Smoke Yellowfinger's Cigaroots Und Die Lingering But Dopey.'

"Den I began to argue der matter mit myself und I came to der conclusioning dot der train vas still in der heart of cifilization, und ven ve reached der real country de landscape would assert its rights und begin to happen.



Waste Can with Wilson Whiskey Advertisement, Cleveland, Ohio.

"Den I counted 350 mit my eyes closed, und den, remoofing my fingers slowly, slowly, slowly, I took a sly glance oferboard.

"Vot I saw vas a big sign saying dese solemn vords, 'Be a Good Chooser Und Chew Chawington's Choo-Chooder Gum Dot Doand Come Off.'

"'Surely,' I vispered to myself, mit my back to der vindow, 'surely dare vas a wisitation on Nature here at vun time vich must half left some landscape behind it, but vare is it now?'

"Dus in deep t'ought, mit both hands pressed hard ofer my eyes, I sat dare for abouid half an hour, und den, mit der swiftness of der turtle dove I tro both glances ouid of der window.

"Vas it landscape pure and simple vich met der glances? Nein. It vas a sign vich set dese few but pitter vords:

"'Children, dear in any case,
Doan'd drive nails in mother's face.
If you do und she should scream,
Try Mike Schmidt's Complexion Cream.'

"Now, I ask you, Looey, is it possible for a olt-fashioned man to lead a refined life in such a atmosphere as dese?

"I ask you, Looey.

"Yours mit luff—D. Dinkelspiel."

The church does not escape the billboards. I printed in a national magazine a picture of a large right-angled stand next a church in Memphis, receiving in consequence an indignant letter from a trustee of that church, who asserted that the billboards were fully three feet away from the building. In Worcester they are closer, and in another city the objection of certain church authorities to a great spread across the street was promptly responded to by the doubling of the height of the billboards. A church in Newark was constrained to build a high fence to shut out repeated theatrical posters, after ineffectual remonstrance.

The school affords fine proximity for the advertising

"Colonne Moris" for Theater and other Amusement Posters.

News Vender's Kiosk.

HINTS FROM PARIS.

of "White Slave" dramatics, whiskey and tobacco, and the sign men take refuge behind the constitutional right of every man to insult his neighbor to the limit, whenever there is objection to his large displays of the seamy things of life before children. What attractiveness for the small boy has the school book under his arm in comparison with the great letters and loud pictures of breakfast foods and crime he lingers to read on the way?

Our national capital city, owned by us all, and typifying our development and our aspirations, furnishes a fine field for the billboard advertisers. From the entrance to the Capitol Grounds on Pennsylvania avenue one must see a great right-angled line of signs, while there is no way to view the near-by Garfield monument without taking in a background of billboards.

Such is the way in which billboard advertising is at present conducted. Should its intrusions progress in only the proportionate growth of the past decade, we may yet see the Brooklyn Bridge presenting the virtues of Wilson's

A New England Corner—Columbus avenue, Boston, Mass.

Whiskey. Why not? One of the main bridges between the two halves of Greater Pittsburg now holds forth the virtues of a cure for piles.

The New York City Hall would be a fine stand for enterprising announcements, and there can be no logical objection to having posters hung on it, as it is owned by the people no more than is the sign-hung Subway. The mayor of the city of Niagara Falls told me of the regret with which he had turned down an offer of a thousand dollars a week to throw Coca Cola on the face of the cataract by search-light during last summer's vulgar illumination. He may be persuaded to yield this year, being encouraged by a new power attack now proceeding on this greatest of American scenic glories.

The Grand Canyon of the Colorado has been dedicated by the President as a great national monument, within a few weeks; but if we are progressive, and billboards continue to progress, why cannot a future president see the good business of permitting a spread for Burrowes Rustless Screens or Ingersoll's Dollar Watches across its wondrous cliffs? The Palisades of the Hudson have not escaped department-store labels!

But I do not believe any man present will live to see the Mammoth Cave hung with electrically illuminated announcements of Plymouth Pants, nor will the White House at Washington ever be painted free with the yellow and black of Castoria. The people will not much longer endure the ignominy of unchecked billboard ugliness, and Greater New York will soon pay less than seven million dollars as annual tribute to the billboard desecration of civic elegance now existing.

The rising tide of indignation will sweep away the signs. Public opinion in America is dominant, and when aroused, resistless. The people are thinking and speaking now, in respect to billboard intrusions, and they have several ways of making themselves heard effectively, even

though every ugly billboard in America might be protected by laws at this moment.

The legal protection of billboards is manifested in the doctrine that a man may not be disturbed in doing what he pleases with his own property, unless he creates a nuisance, and in the further doctrine that at present a billboard is not a public nuisance.

Under the first doctrine, I may erect any horror on my own premises, so long as it is a scentless and silent horror. It must not smell evilly, to annoy my neighbor's nose, for that would be creating a legally restrainable nuisance. It must not be vociferously noisy, to annoy my neighbor's ears, for that also would be creating a legally restrainable nuisance. It may be as ugly as I can make it, as vulgar as will pass the police regulations, as intrusive as would be a salesman who shouted in my ear the merit of his wares every time I looked his way, and yet it will be strictly legal, for it only annoys the sense of sight, not yet supposed to be worth protecting by law.

But even these legal defenses of the billboards are weakening under the steady even if slow growth of public indignation. One jurist has crossed the line, and, in deciding as constitutional and proper under the police power an ordinance prohibiting billboards in the residence town of East San Jose, California, Judge Welch declared the billboards a public nuisance, adding these significant words:

"A glaring billboard, advertising, for instance, 'Budweiser Beer,' set opposite a man's house in a vacant lot, bordering upon a public highway in a country town devoted to homes, is just as offensive to the immediate residents as would be the maintenance of a pigsty giving forth offensive odors or the maintenance of a stonebreaking machine, or the chime of hoarse bells. In principle there is no difference between them. . . .

"It would be a singular result of our law if relief could not be had against the maintenance, for purely advertising purposes, of an uncouth billboard erected opposite my house, having printed upon it grotesque advertisements of wines, beers, and whiskies, and constantly, hourly and daily, a detriment to my property, and a serious injury to the feelings of myself and my family.

"Happily, there is a strong crusade in full swing all over this country against the further maintenance of bill and sign boards,—a

crusade that can only end, as all crusades have ended looking to the betterment of mankind, in the final downfall of this damaging kind of business. . . ." (See article reviewing this case in other pages of this magazine.)

In the same state, Judge Bordwell has affirmed the validity of an ordinance of the city of Los Angeles, taxing billboards by the square foot, while declaring unconstitutional a very drastic enactment limiting height and location and requiring consent of neighboring property owners. In reporting this decision as "A Sweeping Victory," Mr. McManus of the New York *Billposter* asserts, "Public sentiment against billboards in Los Angeles was very strong. . . . Women have been especially active in this campaign." He overlooks Judge Bordwell's evident regret at the extreme regulations which he had to decide against, and his strong words about the signs as follows:

"It cannot be denied that billboards themselves are unattractive, and that in fact they do materially mar the general beauty of the city, 'being positively shocking to the educated esthetic sense, shaming both the advertiser and the designer.'"

Many other evidences might be cited of the proceeding change in the judicial view of billboards. Judge Welch's position that billboards are a public nuisance needs to be sustained by only a few more advancing jurists, to place the whole fabric of expensive ugliness in jeopardy. It should be noted by any interested that nuisances are not reduced by law—they are simply abolished, upon proper proof of existence and the resulting injury from their existence. So the intemperance of the advertising interests which exploit the noisy billboard is the strongest present force toward their complete abolition. The billboard interests defeated a billboard local option measure in the Pennsylvania legislature last year. Next year it may be prohibition and not local option they must fight.

There is another way in which the billboards are working toward their doom of abolition. It is the complete inconsistency of blatant billboards with city beauty. That

city beauty is increasing no man who has eyes can deny. That it will continue to increase, because a people of increasing education and culture want it to increase, is obvious. As I have said before, where does the billboard come in, in the City Beautiful? I doubt the existence of great signs in the heavenly city, for of it John the Revelator says: "There shall in no wise enter into it anything that defileth, neither whatsoever worketh abomination." That the brimstone city has plenty of billboards is very likely, and that some advertisers are preparing for a permanent display in that vicinity can be deduced from their extensions of fire-proof signs.

We have some examples of great civic beauty in European cities. Berlin, Paris, Vienna, Rome, Venice, draw thousands of visitors from America annually, and they spend millions of American money to see cities in which the billboard as we know it is completely absent. Travel to South America is increasing, and those who return full of the glories of Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Ayres tell us that there are no billboards there. Even London and all England, sign-boarded to the very skies, have revolted against the ignominy of it, and Parliament has, as the result of a fourteen-year battle, passed a restrictive law of a broad character. Thus the whole civilized world, save America, has seen the incompatibility of billboards and beauty, and has made good business out of the beauty we pay so much travel money to see by keeping out the billboards.

We are sure, in America, to soon see the economic waste of general city ugliness, and when we see it clearly, the billboards will fall, and fall rapidly.

Yet another, and a very strong and immediately effective reason for believing billboard advertising as at present conducted, to be doomed, is the underlying purpose of advertising, and the good sense and business acumen of the advertisers who now support it. The National Biscuit

Company does not erect great signs to create ugliness, or in a spirit of boastfulness; it sets up its constructions solely to sell Uneeda Biscuit. The Crystal Domino people have an idea that their boards on the Newark meadows will help to sell sugar, or they would not be there.

An awful whiskey sign at Harper's Ferry has been spotted on the beauty of the Virginia hills solely to increase the high-ball habit, and not for the primary purpose of desecrating historic scenery. All of these advertisers are under the belief or persuasion that billboard advertising pays, or they would not so advertise.

Now when these acute gentlemen realize that the public distaste for the intrusions of the billboard has reached the point of making a great display effective as a means of actually restricting trade, they will stop, and stop suddenly.

I contend that this point has been reached now, and that the majority of billboards are ineffective in winning business, while some are actually chasing it away. Coming from Washington I was sitting opposite a total stranger in a dining car while the train crossed the Susquehanna River. The gentleman opposite had ordered whiskey, and was raising the glass to his lips when we passed a great sign, stretched across a green-clad island in the river, reading "Wilson's Whiskey—That's All." Down came the glass, and out came hot words: "That will be all for me, d— it!"

Mr. McManus has called attention to the strong public sentiment against billboards in Los Angeles, and he speaks of the women in the crusade against the billboards. I have heard another billboard man say that women bought ninety per cent. of the articles advertised on billboards. If that is true, and the women are outraged at the billboards, is billboard advertising good to attract women?

In Cincinnati an active committee of the strong organization known as the Business Men's Club has induced three hundred local billboard advertisers to quit, so as to

help make Cincinnati beautiful. Is it at all likely that these business men will lose by abandoning ugliness?

The United States Government has tried and abandoned billboards as a means of attracting enlistments in the Marine Corps. The boards didn't bring the boys!

It will be noted that billboards are largely used by tobacco, beer, and whiskey men. It might be supposed that these articles, appealing to men primarily, could be sold by this means of publicity if anything could. Yet listen to these editorial paragraphs from the trade organ, *Tobacco,* printed December 26 and January 2:

"Now *Tobacco* is free to admit that it believes that in a measure the stand taken by the newspapers against billboard advertising is economically sound.

"The trade has expended millions of dollars in that form of publicity in the past twenty-five or thirty years, and while there may have been a time when it proved profitable *Tobacco* is of the opinion that it is at least an open question whether billboards can be advantageously employed in exploiting cigars, cigarettes, and tobacco at the present day. . . .

"*Tobacco* is satisfied that as a general proposition the concern whose advertising appropriation amounts to but a few thousand dollars a year might just as well kindle a bonfire with the money as to invest it in posters on the billboards."

Theaters are supposed to find the billboards indispensable. Yet note these editorial words from the *Dramatic Mirror* of February 8:

"Every theater manager who employs the billboard in competition with the many other interests that seek this means of advertising is interested in the phases of public opinion forming on the subject of such displays, and thus it is pertinent to chronicle some of the later manifestations against this sort of publiciity.

"Theater managers derive comparatively little return from this form of advertising, it is believed, owing to the mass of advertisements of various commodities that distract the eye on the billboards. Vast spaces devoted to a single object alone are reasonably effective, but a sentiment against such advertising is growing. It is safe to say, in the case of theaters, that one-half the amount spent upon billboards would get better results if placed in the newspapers. And time may make the newspapers the sole medium for much of the advertising now spread upon the billboards."

An experiment was made for a few weeks during the last summer by the American Civic Association, in hav-

ing distributed through the coöperation of the authorities at the American Park at Niagara Falls cards asking for an expression as to the great signs displayed on the Canadian side by American advertisers. The cards were handed to visitors as they left Goat Island, so that the test might be a fair one. The card expressed no opinions, and asked the following questions:

"Have you noticed the advertising signs on the Canadian side of the Gorge near the end of the Steel-Arch Bridge?"

"Do you find them, on the whole, pleasing or displeasing?"

"Are you more likely to buy the articles advertised by reason of seeing these signs at Niagara Falls?"

Barely two per cent. of the replies indicated any favorable interest in the signs. Some were indifferent; most were angered at what they had seen. Here are some replies:

"I never use goods so advertised."

"The Coca Cola sign is worst. I will not buy Coca Cola."

"I hope they will be removed."

"Very objectionable."

"Will never buy these articles."

"I think such firms should be boycotted."

"The signs prejudice me against the manufacturers."

"Detestable; it is like hanging an advertisement for chewing gum on statue of the Goddess Athene."

One manufacturer from Los Angeles says, "It is as fair for one as for all to not so deface beautiful scenery."

An Englishman says the "signs ought to be suppressed."

Many did not notice the signs at all, because of the impressiveness of the scenery.

Now how much real advantage are those signs to Mr. Mennen and the Coca Cola people?

I again insist that most billboard advertising is not good business, and that it has a decided tendency to be reverse or repellant advertising. I have never heard that a drunken man was considered a good advertisement for a saloon. Indeed, in one case a saloonkeeper nearly had a fit because a wag pinned on the coat of a sleeping victim of booze who had remained in front of the premises a card reading, "Specimen of the Work Done Inside. Come In."

Consider, too, the company a billboard spread gets into. An article in the Minneapolis *Journal* reads:

"It is a crime for a girl to dress in men's clothing on the street, and yet we permit the poster of 'Anita, The Singing Girl,' dressed as a man, to stare you in the face as you walk along the streets. Common decency prohibits women from entering saloons, where they can be seen at least, but we allow the cheap theater to publish pictures of ballet dancers, performing on a wine table at which are seated bloated saloon bums in their fine toggery. It is against the laws to carry a revolver, and yet our streets are rarely free from pictures of masked men holding up other men."

There may be, if I am mistaken as to the early doom of the billboard, some seriousness in the suggestion of the New York *Tribune* that the real motive for the invention of the airship was to enable suffering people to get away from the billboards. If a sarcastic cartoon in *Puck* should be taken as a suggestion, the ocean lane to Europe will not long remain free from the same sort of decoration that was inflicted on poor Dinkelspiel, for the idea is to anchor immense billboards to a series of buoys all the way over the pond!

The attitude of the whole press of the country on this subject is worth the attention of those who make the billboard possible. It is unanimous, practically, against the enterprise, which, generally called the "billboard nuisance," is sometimes cited as "the billboard evil." From Seattle to Bangor, from Atlanta to Milwaukee, in cities large and cities small, in papers Republican and Democratic, tariff and free trade, religious and flippant, the newspaper voice is "the signs must go."

Notice the community activities reported against billboards in just a few localities. There are efforts to censor, tax, or abolish the nuisance now proceeding in Nashville, Newark, New York, Washington, Baltimore; in Providence, Pittsburg, Milwaukee, St. Paul, and Louisville; in Buffalo, Cincinnati, Little Rock, and New Orleans; in Boston, Hartford, St. Louis, Colorado Springs, Tacoma, Seattle, and Los Angeles. Springfield, North Adams, and Haverhill, Massachusetts, are fighting the signs, as also are Youngstown, Ohio; Richmond, Indiana; Spartansburg, South Carolina; Montgomery, Alabama. Greensboro, North Carolina,

has just passed a sharp restrictive ordinance, and scores of other communities are also active.

Will inadequate laws long hamper such a mass of public sentiment as is thus evidenced from abating a nuisance? And what sort of a business is it that thus receives the objurgations of the press, the anathemas of the clergy, the protests of the women, the condemnation of the courts? Can it stand against the people who are trying to make America beautiful, against the educators who seek high ideals for the young, the law makers who are justly incensed at its insolent defiance of the least attempt to restrain it or to regulate it, or to tax it equivalently with other property?

To all this the associated billboard interests will pay the tribute of a passing sneer. The billboard organs take great satisfaction in calling all who oppose their so-called enterprise "fanatical reformers," "notoriety seekers," and the like. We "depend for prominence upon mussing-up other people's affairs," but they insist that all who believe in the city beautiful will "subside harmlessly and in time permanently." One of these periodicals, *Signs of the Times*, thus settles the status of those who in New York dare to care for the beauty of the city:

> "Under the cloak of an ambiguous clan termed the Municipal Art Society, a malformation of men who wear women's clothes and women who wear men's clothes gather together now and then, when they can borrow the carfare, to consider ways and means of beautifying our city."

What an interesting and pathetic sight must be presented when Robert W. DeForest and J. Pierpont Morgan, together with other members of the Municipal Art Commission, after donning clothing belonging to their wives, chase around hunting for carfare to take them to a meeting!

To sneer at public spirit, to laugh at the suggestion of public beauty, to overlook the growth of the public opinion they are constantly irritating—what more could we ask of them?

Billboard advertising as now conducted is a business of unfair and special privilege, seeking to exploit for the benefit of a few the costly beauty of our cities while it destroys the natural beauty of our scenery. I do not believe twenty per cent. of those who make billboards possible have realized either the unfairness of the method or the inefficiency of the result. I believe they will so realize, and that soon, and that as good citizens no less than as good business men they will agree that the present billboard advertising is doomed, as it ought to be, because it is against good business and against good citizenship. That we may all see the early extinction of the obtrusive features of the billboards and come to such a sane and fair regulation of outdoor advertising as exists in many European cities, is my earnest hope.

Indictment Against the Billboard*

By Clinton Rogers Woodruff

Vice-President American Civic Association.

"OH, you're from Pittsburg. I stopped in Pittsburg once, for a few hours when I had to wait for a train. It's such a funny, ugly city, all covered with the queerest wooden fences with great big advertisements printed on them. That's all I remember about Pittsburg,—its billboards and its hills." This, Carolyn Prescott tells us, is a sample of conversation "handed out" to Pittsburgers, the home of the great Carnegie Art Institute. This same authority declares that there are billboards everywhere: Billboards on top of tall buildings; billboards creeping over the high hills, winding their sinuous length like so many bizarre serpents; billboards stuck up in front of houses and gardens; billboards at the

*Abridged from American Civic Association pamphlet. In the campaign against the billboard prior publication of parts of this indictment should be credited to *The Craftsman* and *The Outlook*.

entrance of the parks; billboards even defacing the cemeteries. Everywhere one turns, there is the sight of some medicine that is warranted to cure everything from softening of the brain to housemaid's knee, or billboards demanding that we shall eat so and so, or drink so and so, or wear so and so, or go to such and such a place, if we would be happy. "We are so nauseated with the billboards that by the time we have reached our destination we have become so disgusted with what we have seen and read (for we can't help reading them—it's like the opium habit) that we wouldn't patronize those firms who advertise on billboards if we had to do without the articles."

I wonder how many Carnegie Art Institutes it will take to offset such a condition of affairs? A very great many, for the one Pittsburg now has, with all its millions of endowment and beautiful collections, is not able to prevent the erection of one board, one hundred and forty feet long and twenty feet high, directly opposite the Institute itself. Nor has its presence prevented the desecration of its own beautiful pictures. La Fouche's picture of "The Bath," which received the first prize at the Interstate Art Exhibition at the Institute last spring (1907), has been utilized as a subject "to inspire enthusiasm in modern plumbing." Surely these desecrations may with entire appropriateness be termed "disfiguring curses to our not-too-pretty city."

The counts in the indictment against the billboard evil are fortunately being formulated and rapidly multiplied throughout the country. Each interest involved is pressing its charges with more and more vigor and relentlessness.

FIRE DANGER AND MENACE TO HEALTH.

The public officials, in the persons of the fire and police chiefs, are objecting on the ground that the billboard is a menace to the life, health and property of the community. Fire Chief Croker, of New York, maintains that they are a delay and a very great handicap to a fireman. He maintains that time and again his men have to cut their way through

the boards to get to a fire. But very slight reflection is needed to see how dangerous they are apt to be in large cities and in narrow streets.

The fire chief of Janesville, Wis., is officially on record as opposed to billboards, and, in Buffalo, the city council has placed the abatement of those boards defined to be nuisances in charge of the fire bureau.

Moreover, billboards, it is contended by some officials, help to communicate fire, and should be forbidden on the same ground that frame structures are forbidden in built-up sections of the average city. To allow billboards within the limits wherein frame structures are forbidden is an obvious inconsistency, which ought forthwith to be done away with without further debate.

The police in some cities object because the boards afford a hiding place for fugitives and criminals, and sanitary officers and building inspectors object because the grounds behind billboards are likely to become nuisances. The Memphis Council recently enacted some much-needed protective and sanitary legislation including certain sections bearing on the billboard problem, the constitutionality of which was assailed, but eventually sustained by the Supreme Court. In the future, all billboards must be built three feet from the ground. This is primarily necessary for the purpose of sanitation. Many people have been using the space in the rear of extensive billboards as a common dumping-ground. Filth of all character has been deposited in such places because they were screened from the streets. Various nuisances have been committed, and the health of the city has been endangered. This is one of the reasons that led the building inspector to begin his crusade in behalf of a healthier and safer arrangement for the construction of such boards. In this he had the coöperation of the health department and some of the city officials in general. In addition to this, there are certain other regulations to be complied with, looking to the public safety. A number of boards have recently toppled over, and in two instances death was narrowly

averted. Hereafter all billboards, in addition to being built three feet from the ground, must be built upon posts 6x6 inches where the sign is to be ten feet in height.

This legislation does not go into the question of the moral or esthetic offensiveness of billboards, but it is significant in that it establishes a precedent that they are nuisances, because a danger, if unregulated, to the public health.

Moreover, it furnishes a reply to one of the stock arguments of bill-posters, that they hide unpleasant spots and sights. A correspondent of a Pittsburg paper thus puts this side of the case: "Billboards have been called an eyesore; but I leave it to any observant person if a picture, no matter how inartistic or crude, is worse than the usual litter of tin cans, garbage, stones, etc., generally to be found behind these same boards. Clean up the vacant lots so that the people will not want to hide them with hideous fences, and then talk about the harm done to one's artistic principles by the billboards."

Will those responsible for such a condition of affairs be the more likely to clean up if the litter is exposed, or if it is allowed to remain concealed behind a billboard? Billboards may cover up a lot of sins, but the wiser policy is to cure them, rather than multiply the billboards!

There are those who now claim that they are further detrimental to health, because they shut out the light from offices, factories and, in some places, flats and dwellings. If billboards multiply in number and size as rapidly in the next year or two as they have in the past two or three, they will shut out a very considerable amount of light and air.

What with the skyscraper and the gigantic billboard in out cities, the outlook is not encouraging, unless a halt is called and that very soon. Perhaps the fact that the value of real estate is being impaired by the presence of these boards will serve to bring about a reform. The Massachusetts Civic League, in its campaign in that state, formally charged that the value of real estate had been decreased in certain instances by reason of objectionable billboards.

If once the property-holders realize that this is likely to be a general result, they will bestir themselves to their own benefit and that of the community.

Moral agencies indict billboards because they so frequently are used to advertise lurid and sensational plays, tobacco and alcoholic beverages. The Woman's Health Protective Association of Brooklyn charges that the former incite to crime, and that the latter are active accomplices in the transgression, and have asked the Court to order their expunging, on the ground that the community must protect the morals of the boys and girls, its future citizens.

BEAUTY A PUBLIC ASSET.

The most widely urged objection to the billboard, however, is the one based on esthetic grounds, as in the Pittsburg instance just cited. It is a great step forward that one court, at least, has held that an injury or an offense to the sight may be abated as a nuisance, just as we can one to the ear or nose. (This celebrated case is reviewed in detail on other pages of this issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.)

There was a time when a ride through the country on the railroad afforded an uninterrupted panorama of beauty, an ever-varying scene which was a delight to the eye and a joy to the soul; there was mental and spiritual refreshment. Can the same be said of the ride from Philadelphia to New York, on the Pennsylvania railroad, or from New York to Boston, on the Shore Line? There are spots which remind us of what was once the rule, but, for the most part, our eyes meet offensive signs—offensive not only in what they give us in the way of unsought advice about personal matters, but offensive because they obscure the landscape or distract our attention from its beauties. To adopt as our own the words of the Earl of Balcarres, one of the leading British opponents of the evil: What we claim is that the landscape does not belong to the man who chooses to pay a few shillings for it per annum, but is an asset of the people at large. The same principle applies to open space and places. The sky

sign is a most objectionable form of advertising. There is the flash sky sign which dominates the whole of the embankment. A well-known hotel has a big illuminated sign which flashes down the Mall into the very windows of the sovereign in his palace. Such advertisements are merely seizing the opportunities of the taxpayers' expenditure on space and utilizing it.

THE BOYCOTT.

If there is no other way to reach such offenders, let every one who sees these boards or hears about them register a solemn vow never to patronize the advertiser who uses such means to give publicity to his wares. This is the remedy which the North End Improvement Society of Tacoma is using with telling effect. If an offending advertiser fails to respond to the courteous suggestions of an abatement of the nuisance, then the members solemnly pledge themselves to refrain from purchasing the articles so advertised. Such a remedy is most effective, as the dealer is not anxious to have his goods boycotted at the very time he is spending his good money to give them publicity.

I must confess to a liking for the boycott remedy, not only because it is so effective where properly and persistently applied, but it represents a direct and definite effort on the part of the people themselves. It is not an imposed remedy; it is one which the demos itself applies, and is, therefore, an evidence of that much interest and cultivation. Moreover, it represents a willingness to make a sacrifice for one's principles—and that is desirable.

Then, there is a very practical advantage—there are no provoking or perplexing delays, no court proceedings, no injunctions, no appeals. It is neat, clean, unmistakable to the one who knows best, and effective. Not that I underestimate the value of the prohibitive ordinance and act of assembly, or the great influence of the taxing power; because I believe in using every legitimate weapon in attacking an enemy. I believe in them and advocate them on every

possible occasion; but the boycott is always at hand, and can be applied without delay and without any thought as to its legality. All that is necessary is to make up your mind that this is one thing I will not do,—I will not deal with any one or use any article that resorts to objectionable advertising.

TAXATION.

Taxation is coming to be regarded as a favorite weapon against the billboard. To quote the New York *Tribune*:—"We think the abuse could be made to correct itself in a few years if the State would authorize the laying of a graduated tax on street signs, the tax increasing with the square area covered. The government would either make a considerable revenue out of such a tax, or the increased cost of posters would compel a change in present methods. To artistic, modest, and sensible advertising there can be no objection. But we owe it to our sense of municipal good order and dignity to blot out the extravagant and tasteless poster spread indiscriminately over fences and walls. We have much to learn from the wise practice of European cities in dealing with the street advertising problem."

The American Civic Association, believing that taxation is an effective method of regulation and suppression, has prepared a "Model" bill giving to the local authorities power to tax. This measure will, during the present year (1908), be introduced in a number of state legislatures, and next year, when the vast majority of such bodies will meet, it will be introduced in them, and pressed with all the vigor and resources at the Association's command.

A Billboard Campaign

THE American Civic Association is vitally interested in billboards. It is leading the campaign for their suppression where necessary, and for their regulation by communities in the interest of a better and more beautiful America. One of its chief aims at this time is to arouse the American people to the necessity for prompt and effective action against the spread and maintenance of this nuisance, which, if unchecked, will soon defeat much of the growing effort for civic orderliness and city beauty.

Richard Watson Gilder, editor of the *Century Magazine,* puts the case strongly and aptly in a letter he wrote for the Providence meeting:

> As I went yesterday to my office in this city I passed one of the most beautiful of modern buildings, a savings bank built recently of white marble in the classical style. It is a pleasure to look upon this noble and restful structure. And it is a pain, and an anger to have to take in, at the same glance, an enormous liquor sign, high in the air beyond and above it. What is the use of building exquisite structures, if any tasteless and remorseless trader can come along with his glaring dominating appeals for your money, and utterly spoil the effect. It is as if at a symphony concert, venders of soap should be allowed to go up and down the aisles and bawl their wares.
>
> A similar experience accompanied my railroad trip on the same day over one of the lines between New York and Philadelphia—where now and again a loud array of advertising signs spoiled the effect of the rich, otherwise harmonious landscape.
>
> One of these days the people of a commercial community will appreciate the fact that, to put it commercially, beauty is a valuable asset, as well "as a joy forever," and then the advertisement fiend will not be allowed to go up and down the land destroying values—values that belong to the entire population, and that no individual has the right to ruin.

The Association exists for the coördination and direction of the forces which make for a clean and beautiful country. It regards the home as the unit of our national life and the improvement of home grounds as the first step in civic betterment, and therefore it urges that a community of enlightened homes demand the removal of the unsightly and unsanitary in its surroundings. In such a community is developed the civic conscience that provides public im-

provements of a sane and wholesome nature, and that tends toward the preservation of great natural scenic heritages.

We cannot expect to have and maintain beautiful and truly enlightened homes if we permit them to be intruded upon by ugly and debasing signs maintained for private gain. We cannot realize the "city beautiful" if we fail to check the extension of objectionable billboards.

There is no longer any question in the minds of thoughtful observers that unrestrained outdoor advertising is incompatible with attractive city conditions. Moreover, public authorities are beginning to appreciate that not only are billboards detrimental to the physical beauty of the community, but likewise inimical to health and injurious to property values. The bill-poster does not hesitate to thrust his glaring productions close to the home, the school, the church, while he frequently shuts out light, air and sunshine from industrial workers.

Education on the subject is sorely needed in every community, and this the Association is steadily and persistently seeking to furnish. Moreover, it is pursuing an extended and far-reaching design to make billboards the subject of equitable taxation as a means to their proper regulation and restraint.

The American Civic Association wants your coöperation in this campaign. First, through your enrollment as a member so that we may have the support of your name and contribution, or if you are a member, then by an additional contribution; secondly, we want your help through enlisting your friends, neighbors and newspapers.

Address

AMERICAN CIVIC ASSOCIATION,
North American Building, Philadelphia, Pa.

What Can Be Done

By Harlan P. Kelsey.

Vice President, Department of Nuisances, American Civic Association.

UP to date what can we forcibly or otherwise do to get rid of the billboard nuisance?

First. Under the police power granted the Commonwealths, all billboards, signs, posters or hand bills of an obscene nature, or tending to lower the morals of a community where such advertising is displayed, may be quickly disposed of by local ordinance, if enforced, whether on private or public property, as has been done in Springfield, Mass., Brooklyn, and many other cities and towns. This is perhaps the first step to be taken in accomplishing what we want. The bill-posters themselves are seeing the light in this direction.

Second. Local, state and national authorities have unquestioned power and it is their duty to prohibit the posting of any private advertising on public property, at least without most careful provision and charging adequate fees for such rights—such fees to be paid into the public treasury—not into some public official's pocket. But their power even to grant such permits is or may be limited, as in Tompkins v. Pallas, N. Y. Misc. 309, where it was held by the Supreme Court that a park commissioner had no right to grant a permit for the placing of placards, signs, or billboards on a fence surrounding a park.

Third. Ordinances may entirely prohibit distributing hand bills on the streets or throwing them on doorsteps. A vast number of towns and cities have such ordinances, but how few enforce them! It is easier to pay street department employees to clean up the litter, while the "boys" who have votes must have jobs, and it is not a particularly unhealthy occupation.

Fourth. Penalties may be imposed and enforced for using private property of another for affixing private adver-

tising without permit in writing from the owner, who may always sue for trespass where permit is not given. (See Chap. 208, Sec. 115, Revised Laws of Mass.).

Fifth. The height, material, method of construction, and location of fences and billboards may be properly regulated by law where they come within the Police Powers as regards health or menace to public safety, as in case of fire, wind, etc. (See p. 48, Chap. 4 of the ordinances of the City of Buffalo, which prohibits the erection of fences or billboards more than seven feet in height within the City of Buffalo, without permission of the Common Council.)

(See also United States Circuit Court, Western District of New York. The Gunning System vs. the City of Buffalo et al. Here Mr. Justice Hazel, in an opinion handed down May 1st, 1907, upholds a former decision "That the enactment of the ordinance (above referred to) was authorized and should be enforced." "That the structures which were more than seven feet in height were in fact common nuisances under the ordinance under consideration" This decision, no doubt, paved the way for the San José decision.)

Sixth. Taxation and Licensing. Billboards on private property may be taxed as income producing property. This should prove the most efficacious means and apparently at present is the only general legal means of regulating the number and size of billboards otherwise erected and maintained legally. This is being accomplished in Kansas City. (See Ordinance 30, 255, Sec. 8; also in New Jersey, and elsewhere, and is common practice abroad. See also report of the Joint Special Committee on Taxation, Mass., Jan., 1907, "An Act relative to the Taxation of sign-boards.")

This great income-producing source is strangely overlooked in America. Bill-posters themselves should welcome such a tax, which, while reducing the number of billboards erected, would tend to make those remaining more valuable and we believe more artistic. The Business Men's Club of Cincinnati estimates a minimum of 3,000,000 square feet of billboards in their city, which if taxed twelve cents per foot

per year (a reasonable amount) would yield an annual revenue of $360,000.

Seventh. Just, but not unjust boycott. If a storekeeper displays his wares in an objectionable manner, one is fully justified in buying of a merchant more responsive to public sentiment and desires. Druggists, for instance, who violate every decent esthetic feeling by making their buildings a bill, pill, and ill-plastered box should be made to feel the effects of outraged public sentiment. But first warn offenders, and if they "get wise," well enough. If not, they cannot thereafter complain of lost trade.

Eighth. Now we have left to consider only these billboards otherwise passing the test, yet esthetically wrong—either out of place, as on private property along park-ways, or as seen from the train, or in design or color bad.

For this, educate public opinion—first, last, and always.

If the recent court decision in San José is finally upheld, the last prop of the unrighteous bill-poster will be gone. (See Public Aesthetics, by Wilbur Larremore in Harvard Law Review, Vol. 20, No. 1, particularly pages 43 and 44.)

Thus we see that with such legal authority and precedents it becomes largely a question of desire and will on the part of the public or of individuals in any given community, as to the extent the billboard nuisance as such in any form is allowed to exist.

The Law and How to Work It*

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS FOR ABATING THE ADVERTISING NUISANCE IN MASSACHUSETTS.

IN general terms, no advertising sign may be put up anywhere in Massachusetts without the *written consent* of the owner or tenant of the land on which it is exhibited, under a penalty of $10. Any sign put up without such consent may be legally removed or obliterated by anybody.

*Issued by the Massachusetts Civic League.

Such written consent must be obtained, whether the sign is on private land or within the limits of a highway; and, since the legal title in the land over which a highway runs generally belongs to the owner of the abutting property, a man's written consent must ordinarily be secured before an advertising sign can be legally put up in the highway in front of his land.

If it is suspected that a sign is put up without such written consent, several courses are open:

THE DIPLOMATIC METHOD.

One may simply write to the person who put up the sign, or to the person whose business is advertised, asking him to come and take it down, paint it out, clean it off, or otherwise repair the disfigurement, threatening him with the fine imposed by the law below cited, in case he does not comply with the request. This method has the merit of giving the offender some trouble and of thus acting as a deterrent.

THE CIRCUMSPECTLY LEGAL METHOD.

One may ask the owner or tenant of the land whether he gave a written consent for putting up the sign; and, if he did not, one may induce him—or, if he is too indolent, some public officer—to go to the nearest police court and complain to the clerk of the violation of the law, and ask that the offender be prosecuted. Also, after finding that no written consent was given for the sign, one may safely tear it down, or otherwise "abate the nuisance" which it constitutes.

THE DIRECT OR CROWBAR METHOD.

In a great many cases, without taking the trouble to make inquiry of the land-owner, one may feel convinced from the character and location of signs that they were put up without written consent, and may act accordingly, pulling them down without further ado. Unless, perchance, one's judgment as to the facts turns out to be mistaken, such a forcible abatement of nuisances is entirely legal and proper.

The full text of the law here follows:

REVISED LAWS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

Chapter 208, Section 115. Whoever paints or puts upon, or in any manner affixes to any fence, structure, pole, rock, or other object, which is the property of another, whether within or without the limits of the highway, any words, device, trade-marks, advertisement, or notice, which is not required by law to be posted thereon, without first obtaining the written consent of the owner or tenant of such property, shall, upon complaint of such owner or of his tenant; or of any municipal or public officer, be punished by a fine of not more than ten dollars. Any word, device, trademark, advertisement, or notice, which has been painted, put up, or affixed within the limits of a highway in violation of the provisions of this section shall be considered a public nuisance, and may be forthwith removed or obliterated and abated by any person.

There is another important law, Acts of 1903, Chapter 158, which confers upon Park Commissions the power to regulate advertising signs near to and visible from the grounds under their charge, even when erected with the landowner's consent or for his profit. The powers constitutionally conferred under this act are still to be determined by the courts, and park commissions ought to pass regulations under this act only with able legal advice.

Further information will be given on application to the Secretary, E. T. Hartman, 3 Joy St., Boston, Mass.

"The Minister Militant"*

IN one quiet Massachusetts village there is at least one man who has accepted the edict of Morris when he says that it is little less than criminal to look on and do nothing while others despoil the byways of privacy and charm. We have called him "The Minister Militant," and it will give a suggestion of the practical value of individual effort to quote something from his own pen, not less keen than his hatchet. He says:

"I turn the warm side of my heart toward any man who is devoted to keeping God's world as beautiful as the depravity of his fellow man will allow him to keep it. As to our way of demolishing the advertising placards—we just

*From a letter read by Frederic A. Whiting at Providence meeting of the American Civic Association.

did it; that's about all. We discussed the subject a little at first, at a poorly attended meeting of our citizens, called by the improvement society, and the thing was parcelled out among a few that could be depended upon. I took a road or section about six miles in length, where the fiends had chosen perches on the trees, accessible only by means of a ladder. They had made their frames strong and had driven their placards in with long spikes but my son was a college boy and glad to help out my stiffer legs. We took my horse and wagon, a ladder and an axe; that was all. A spirit of wrath and determination did the rest.

"We issued an ultimatum that whatever else of the sort might be attempted would meet the same fate. Most of the offenders took heed: but one of the worst sent a man with a paint pot and brush throughout town and the adjacent towns. One day I ran across the fellow in the very act of painting stone walls and roadside boulders. This was bolder than I could stand and I told him plainly that it was no use: he could tell his employer from me, giving him my name, that the signs would all be painted out. He was a gentleman and forthwith quit. He even painted out the sign he was working on.

"But there is the Tragic Yeast man! He periodically passes this way and paints the town red,—or blue,—for that is his color; he carries innumerable cloth posters and cardboard placards and nails them to trees and posts; but I follow him like death's angel. This fall I destroyed about seventy-five, not stopping with my own town but pursuing the trail into two or three other villages. My duties call me all about, and my sensible horse has learned to stop and wait for me, and has even learned the fearsome crackling made by tearing off the stiff cloth advertisements, is according to law and gospel.

"I do not know what anyone else is doing of this sort, but as long as I am bishop of this diocese, I am in this business till death do us part."

Decision Against Bus Signs

GLARING SIGNS ON FIFTH AVENUE STAGES, NEW YORK CITY, HAD TO GO.

THE Fifth Avenue Coach Company operating double-decked automobile stages in New York City, carried enormous painted signs advertising Bul Durham tobacco, cigarettes, etc., until the municipal authorities by ordinance asserted the right to remove them. The signs aroused much protest on the part of the public, but the company sought to maintain its right to carry them for revenue's sake, and brought suit against the city to enjoin interference with the signs. Justice David Leventritt, of the Supreme Court, Manhattan, decided early this year that the suit must be dismissed on its merits, declaring that the plaintiff failed to establish that clear legal right, the existence of which is a condition indispensable to equitable relief.

The Fifth Avenue Coach Company challenged the power of the Board of Aldermen to pass the ordinance under which the city asserts its right to remove the advertising signs. The Court said that the ordinance is constitutional. To quote further:

"There is not a scintilla of evidence that any common carrier anywhere enjoys the privilege of displaying on the outside of its vehicles signs similar to those carried by the plaintiff's stages or even approaching them in similarity. The ordinance is broad and bears equally upon all public and quasi-public corporations."

"The plaintiff maintains that its vehicles are not advertising 'trucks, vans or wagons.' If it were necessary to decide that question I would be inclined to the conclusion that the term 'wagon' contained in the ordinance embraces the plaintiffs' stages. It has been held that the word 'wagon' is a generic term including every other species of vehicle by whatever name it may be called.

"The plaintiff was incorporated to use the public streets for that specific purpose. The leasing of the exterior of its vehicles for advertising is an unauthorized use of the streets for a private purpose. Such a special and peculiar use has been condemned after it has received the stamp of municipal approval. The use of the exterior of stages is not a stage use; it is not necessary to the performance of any corporate duty."

The company set forth the peculiar adaptability of the exterior of its automobile coaches for advertising; that the income received from the advertising company which has the contract for the signs is $10,000 a year, plus $200 per stage. The Court said in this connection:

"The fact that the plaintiff received a substantial income from the advertising company is without weight. The court will not approve an unauthorized act merely because it is a source of profit to the wrongdoer."

Many of the advertising signs related to tobaccos and cigarettes. The Court said the colors used—green, dark blue, white, light blue, yellow, drab and various brilliant shades of red—are contrasted so as to attract attention and are not blended so as to produce a harmonious or an artistic effect and the resulting painting constitutes a disfigurement rather than an ornament.

After describing the beauty of Fifth Avenue with its churches, residences, clubs and hotels the Court added:

"It is amid such scenes as this that the plaintiff's advertising panorama of brilliant signs moves. It is along this avenue of churches that on Sundays these glaring billboards are driven. It is the scheme of beauty which is sacrificed to the demands of modern commercialism. It is along this entrance to parks and along the parks themselves, preserved to attract lovers of nature and of the beautiful that these unnatural and inartistic moving picture signs are displayed. But out of place, disagreeable, and offensive though they are, both to the civic pride and esthetic taste, and although the tendency of equity jurisprudence is to extend the court's jurisdiction to include this situation, the ultimate fact remains that no authority now exists which will justify the legal conclusion that the plaintiff's signs constitute a nuisance."

Justice Leventritt said that while it is true that the courts sustained the right of the subway company to rent space for advertising signs and weighing machines in the subway stations, that decision was based upon a practically universal custom. He said that the Fifth Avenue Coach Company did not satisfy him by evidence that as such it has an equal right, and added:

"It does not show that the exterior of the elevated cars, the subway cars, or the street cars is utilized for the display of advertising signs, but proves the contrary."

Offence to the Public Eye a Nuisance

FAMOUS ANTI-BILLBOARD DECISION IN THE SAN JOSE CASE.

AN important decision was recently rendered by Judge Welch, of the superior court of Santa Clara county, California, determining the right of municipalities to prohibit the erection of billboards within the territorial limits. The question at issue was not the power to impose a license, or in any manner to regulate the erection of billboards, but concerned the power of absolute prohibition, on the ground that they were offensive to the sight and to good taste.

The decision of the court was an oral one, but was conclusive on the points raised. Without qualification, it was in favor of the municipality, and the court held that, under Section 3,479 of the Civil Code, anything that was offensive to the senses could be declared a nuisance and prohibited, and that an offense to the sense of sight might be included with nuisances offensive to other senses. Moreover, the degree of offensiveness might not be equal to all individuals, but, being within the statutory definition of a nuisance, the municipal authorities had the right to declare the offensive object to be a nuisance, and the courts would not interfere with the discretionary power of the board of trustees.

The case of the municipality was ably presented by Jackson Hatch, Esq., attorney for the town, and as the subject-matter is one of great importance, not only locally, but throughout the country, we present herewith such portions of his brief as deal with the law applicable to the matter at issue.

THE ORDINANCE.

The ordinance of the town of East San José, under discussion, prohibited:

(*a*) The erection or maintenance of any billboard, signboard or other structure, for the purpose of painting or other delineating or picturing or displaying thereon, or

thereby any advertisement of any goods, wares or merchandise whatsoever.

The prohibition does not apply to any dwelling-house or barn upon which there shall be painted, or otherwise delineated or pictured or displayed, any advertisement mentioned above; nor to any person having a fixed place of business in East San José who erects or maintains any advertising sign on the premises where his business is carried on, and who has paid the license taxes exacted from him by the town for carrying on such business, and has secured from the marshal a written permit therefor, if the advertisement relates only to goods for sale by him at his said place of business.

The second section of the ordinance provides that, in case of a violation of the ordinance, the town marshal shall serve notice on the person maintaining the prohibited billboard, directing him to remove the same within five days, and that if he fails to do so, then the marshal shall proceed to remove the same.

THE FACTS OF THE CASE.

In August, 1906, the town marshal of East San José served upon Varney & Green, the plaintiffs, a notice in writing, requiring them to remove all billboards maintained by them in the town and used for advertising purposes, within five days, otherwise he would proceed to remove them as directed by the ordinance.

The firm refused to comply with the ordinance, and commenced a suit in equity to obtain a perpetual injunction to restrain the marshal from enforcing the ordinance. A temporary writ was issued, and thereafter the case was tried on its merits. Among other things, it was proved that Varney & Green owned and maintained billboards along the principal thoroughfare through the town. The testimony described in detail these several billboards, of which the following were typical cases: One was about ten feet high and fifty feet long, and contained a good deal of paper in various stages of tearing and some old adver-

tisements of Forepaugh's circus, and an advertisement of pure drugs pasted over an old sign; this billboard was highly colored, having colors red, yellow, black, green, blue, and white; also, it was covered over with dried paste. Another billboard was about ten feet high and twenty feet long, and one of the advertisements was described as follows: It had in large capital letters "A. B. C.," these letters being white on a black background, and followed by the words, "King of all bottled beers," and immediately to the left were the words, "Bottled exclusively at the Brewery in St. Louis," and that to the right was a very excellent picture of a beer bottle, having upon it the letters "A. B. C." and the word "Bohemian," and on the right of it the words, "American Brewing Company, St. Louis, Mo." In the middle of this part of the billboard was a picture of a bulldog of ferocious aspect and large size in an attitude of contemplation, apparently viewing the bottle of beer, and immediately between the dog's outspread front feet appeared the words, "Watching a good thing;" on both sides and to the rear of the dog appeared a prairie scene in green, black and yellow, relieved at intervals with yellow flowers, and at extreme bottom of the sign were the names of the distributors; this and another sign were paper and were pasted on, and underneath was considerable old and rotting paper, making the board look very rough. About a dozen signs were described, including advertisements of whisky, tobacco, cigarettes, and other articles of merchandise. It was shown that these signs were offensive to a great many of the citizens of East San José, because of their unsightly appearance and the fact that they advertised beers and whiskies, and that they excited much unfavorable comment in the community, and were tending to depreciate the value of adjoining properties for residence purposes, and were very distasteful to the community at large.

THE LAW OF THE CASE.

The question opened for discussion is: Has a municipality of the sixth class in California the power, for any

cause at all, to prohibit the erection and maintenance of billboards for general advertising purposes within its corporate limits?

This suggests a consideration of the police power, and of the various conditions that fall within its comprehensive grant of power to municipal corporations.

Under our constitution and laws, a municipal corporation has almost supreme power when it comes to deal with municipal affairs; and while this term, municipal affairs, is difficult to define, the cases in which the courts have attempted to define it are so numerous that it is, in California, an easy thing, comparatively speaking, to bring a case within the domain of municipal affairs.

Section 362 of the Municipal Government Act provides that any act which a municipal corporation shall declare to be a nuisance is a nuisance And, in order to avail itself of this grant of power, it is not necessary for the corporation to declare in terms that the act is a nuisance. If the act which is punishable be in the nature of a nuisance, its status as such is sufficiently fixed.

In Chicago vs. Gunning System, 73 N. E. 1,038, the matter of regulating billboards for advertising purposes is held to be a valid exercise of police power.

It is there said that it (police power) is that inherent or plenary power which enables the state to prohibit all things hurtful to the comfort, safety and welfare of society, and may be termed the law of overruling necessity.

It is thus clear that, if the regulation of billboards for advertising purposes be within the sphere of the operation of the police power, any valid prohibition of the maintenance of billboards for advertising purposes would have to be sustained under the police power; as the same power which authorizes the regulation of a business would have to authorize the prohibition of such a business, if such business could be prohibited at all.

(Here follows a list of the general things assigned by the authorities as justifying the exercise of police power;

also, instances when private property may be destroyed in the abatement of a nuisance.)

The general principle running through all the decisions is: That the question as to whether a given act is or is not a nuisance does not depend upon the existence of any actual damage from such act. In other words, an act may be justly determined a nuisance, or the subject of regulation or prohibition, under the police power, although it has never caused actual damage to a citizen or to the community. As was said in the Gunning case, above cited: "Nor is it necessary that all persons in the community or, in fact, any individual whatever, should be actually inconvenienced or injured; but it is sufficient if there is a tendency to the annoyance of the public by an infringement of its rights, which all are entitled to exercise if they see fit."

In Freund on Police Power, ¶182, it is said: "It is conceived that the police power is adequate to restrain offensive noises and odors. The same protection to the eye, it is conceived, would not establish a new principle, but carry a recognized principle to further application."

It is difficult to discover just the line of demarcation that separates the power to restrain an act offensive to the hearing and to the sense of smell from an act offensive to the eye.

A glaring billboard advertising, for instance, "Budweiser beer," set opposite a man's house in a vacant lot bordering upon a public highway, in a country town devoted to homes, is just as offensive to the immediate residents as would be the maintenance of a pigsty giving forth offensive odors, of the maintenance of a stone-breaking machine, or the chime of hoarse bells. In principle, there is no difference between them. It is, after all, only a difference in degree; each is an interference with the peaceable and quiet enjoyment of one's property

There can be no doubt that a board of trustees may not declare an act or omission a nuisance which is not in fact a nuisance, and which cannot, under any circumstances, in fact be a nuisance. But it does not follow that many

acts which are not in themselves nuisances may not be declared nuisances under certain circumstances. There can be no question of the power of town authorities to declare such acts to be nuisances when circumstances justify.

A billboard may be a nuisance or it may not, and a general advertising business carried on in a community may be detrimental to the general welfare, and so become a nuisance. The proper function of the board of trustees is to ascertain and declare the act to be a nuisance.

Under the general laws of California, "Anything which is injurious to health, or is indecent or offensive to the senses, or an obstruction to the free use of property, is a nuisance."—Civil Code, Section 3,479.

As applied to the facts here, this section, when analyzed, must, of necessity, leave open to some power the determination as to what act is indecent or offensive to the senses, or an obstruction to the free use of property, so as to interfere with the comfortable enjoyment of life or property; and Section 862 of the Municipal Government Act commits to the board of trustees of a municipal corporation of the sixth class this power.

The evidence, as recited in this brief, clearly shows that the act prohibited was offensive to the senses, and interfered with the comfort and well-being of the community, and fully justified the judgment of the board of trustees that the maintenance of the billboards under the conditions there existing constituted a nuisance and should be prohibited.*

In addition to the authorities hereinbefore cited, the brief contains the following references:

The strict rules by which the validity of penal statutes is to be tested are not applied to the ordinances of municipal corporation.—Am. and Eng. Ency. of Law, 2d ed., 977.

*A large portion of the brief is devoted to the consideration of authorities cited by the plaintiff, and their inapplicability clearly shown. This is of interest only to the attorney who might be confronted with a similar case. A lawyer who wishes to go thoroughly into the matter is hereby referred to Jackson Hatch, San José, Cal.

By Section II of Article XI of the constitution of this state, "Any town may make and enforce within its limits all such local police, sanitary and other regulations as are not in conflict with general laws." In ex parte Sing Lee, 96 Cal, 354, it is said that this section is sufficiently broad and comprehensive "to sustain the enactment of any ordinance to promote the health, comfort, safety and welfare of all the inhabitants of a municipality, and which would not be in conflict with the general law."

In Lake Shore vs Ohio, 173 U. S. 385, the court said: "The power of the states to regulate matters of internal police within their limits applies not only to the health, morals and safety of the public, but also to whatever promotes public peace, comfort and convenience."

In Attorney General vs. Williams, 55 N. B. 77, the court held that the law-making power might determine that the beauty and attractiveness of a public park in the capital of the state was a matter of such public interest as to call for the expenditure of public money and justify the taking of private property.

In our own state, in re Wilshire, 103 Fed. Rep. 620, Judge Ross said: "The views in and about a city, if beautiful and unobstructed, constitute one of its chief attractions, and in that way add to the comfort and welfare of its people. Billboards for advertising purposes, erected to any great height, would undoubtedly be subject to all of these, as well as other objections, and such structures are, therefore, plainly within the regulating power of the governing body of the city."

A business, otherwise lawful, may become a nuisance by extraneous circumstances, such as being located in an inappropriate place, or conducted in an improper manner. And some lawful businesses are *prima facie* nuisances in certain localities—21 Am. and Eng. Ency. of Law, 685-690.

It would be a singular result of our law if relief could not be had against the maintenance, for purely advertising purposes, of an uncouth billboard erected opposite my

house, having painted upon it grotesque advertisements of wines, beers and whiskies and constantly, hourly and daily, a detriment to my property, and a serious injury to the feelings of myself and my family.

Happily, there is a strong crusade in full swing all over this country against the further maintenance of billboards and signboards. A crusade that can only end, as all crusades have ended looking to the betterment of mankind, in the final downfall of this damaging kind of business.

When counsel insists that this business of general advertising in this method is lawful business, he loses sight of its practical operations in communities.

As it is operated there, it is not a lawful business; for I maintain that no man, nor firm, nor corporation, has the power in the advancement of its own interests, to damage my property or to insult the feelings of pride which my family and I have in our own home,—and what I say of myself is true of the citizens generally.

Regulation and Inspection*

THERE are three ordinances in the City of Los Angeles referring to billboards: The first provides for regulating the erection and maintenance, the second for the collection of a license, and the third for the appointing of an inspector and the defining of his duties.

The ordinance regulating the erection and maintenance of boards, and the granting of permits therefor, provides that no billboard or advertising signboard larger than eight feet in height or ten feet in length can be erected in the City of Los Angeles, without first having secured a permit from the board of police commissioners. Said board of police commissioners, after receiving a request for a permit to erect a board, shall set a time for hearing not less than

*Report of E. R. Allen, Los Angeles Billboard Inspector, to the California League of Municipalities.

fifteen days thereafter. The application is then referred to the Inspector for his investigation and report. There is no provision of the ordinance which requires the commission to grant a permit unless it sees fit to do so, thereby insuring the restriction of boards that might meet with all the technical requirements, but still be of the greatest detriment to property interests.

After the permit to erect a board has been granted, the ordinance prescribes how and where it shall be erected: first, that no board shall be nearer than twenty feet to any street or public place, and second, that no board shall be higher than ten feet from the surface of the ground. The first provision is a good one, and aims to protect the passerby, in case of the board falling or being blown down; the second, while it prohibits what we call double-deckers,—one board on top of another,—does not allow for sufficient space under the boards. The placing of boards on the surface of the ground is, in my judgment, a mistake. One of the greatest evils, if not the greatest evil of the billboard, is the fact that, where two sides of a lot are enclosed by boards, they are used as toilets and dumping grounds for all kinds of rubbish; whereas, if the boards were two feet from the ground, persons would not be so liable to take such liberties.

Soon after the passing of this ordinance, and while we were in the midst of several trials in the police court, Varney & Green, who are our largest billboard firm, sued out an injunction in the superior court against the city, restraining its officials from enforcing the ordinance: their contention being that the ordinance was void; claiming that it was unreasonable, that the city had not the power to prohibit the erection of boards on private property, and that the peace, health and safety of the people were not endangered by their erection. Our city attorney's office gave great thought and study to this phase of the question, and was supported in the argument before the court by a great number of decisions. That the question is a serious one is very evident from the length of time the court has taken to reach its decision. We

have found that these restrictions are absolutely necessary for the protection of property interests, as real estate speculators are generally willing to rent their vacant lots for billboards in order to get the revenue, regardless of the discomfiture of adjoining property owners.

The ordinance prescribing a license of one-quarter cent a square foot per quarter is not exorbitant or prohibitive, as we have reason to believe that this is only a very small percentage of their earning capacity; but this ordinance was also attacked on the same procedure as the other, by the same firm, on the ground that it was exorbitant and prohibitive, and that the city has not the right to discriminate between advertising by means of billboards, as against newspapers, magazines, etc. This ordinance also requires owners of billboards or advertising signboards to file with the city clerk, each quarter, a verified list of all boards owned or maintained, giving the size and location of each such board.

The duties of the inspector are to inspect all boards, and to see that they conform to the ordinances regulating them; to cause warrants to be issued for the arrest of all persons violating them; to report to the police commissioners on applications for permits, and to investigate all statements filed with the city clerk.

In a city the size of Los Angeles, where we have over 500,000 square feet of boards, there is plenty of work for an inspector to spend his entire time, and ample income to justify his salary. In smaller places, this work could be taken care of by some peace officer.

One of the most crying evils of the advertising line, although it does not properly come under the head of billboard advertising, is what is known as "sniping,"—pasting and tacking all kinds of advertising matter on fences, posts, or any surface where there is room. We have several "painless dentists" and others in Los Angeles, who keep a crew of very active men plastering everything with their bills. I hope that in the near future we may be able to pass an or-

dinance that will, to a certain extent, do away with this abuse.

I have installed a card system as the most satisfactory way to keep track of the billboards of our city, using a different color for the firms engaged in the business, and another color for real estate dealers, and, by making a section for each street, can, in a moment, tell the exact location, the number of feet and the kind of advertising on any board in the city.

Although we have been handicapped by these injunctions, and a number of boards have been erected without permits, our record shows that in the last six months there have been erected in new boards 5,500 square feet, while there have been 8,388 square feet removed, not including about two hundred smaller boards that were put up by real estate men.

The real motive behind the movement against billboards was probably aroused by the wonderful growth in their numbers and the popular belief in their disfigurement, and while there is some doubt as to whether they can be entirely prohibited, they can surely be regulated and put where they are least offensive.

Outdoor Advertising Abroad

HOW FOREIGN CITIES REGULATE, CONTROL, RESTRICT, LICENSE, TAX AND HANDLE BILLBOARDS.

European cities have handled the billboard problem with consummate ability and skill. The President of the American Civic Association made direct inquiry of a number of American consuls concerning the control and management of billboards, and the answers, received through the State Department, have been incorporated in the consular reports. Some South American cities have been equally progressive, and the result of the experience there has been similarly ascertained and sent broadcast. We present here some of

the more striking features of these reports as showing just how carefully and successfully the work has been done.

GERMANY.

MUNICIPAL RESTRICTIONS AND GRANTS IN HAMBURG.

One of the oldest enterprises in Hamburg exclusively devoted to outdoor advertising is the "Anschlagsaulen-Gesellschaft," a company established about the year 1870, which, in January, 1871, closed a thirty years' contract with the Hamburg state government for the sole right of erecting a number of so-called "Litfass-Saulen"—pillars for advertising purposes, named after their inventor, Litfass, a Berlin printer. In 1901, upon the expiration of the original contract, which called for fifty-two such pillars, afterward increased to one hundred, it was renewed for another thirty years, with the provision that after 1911 the right be reserved to the Hamburg government of demanding upon one year's notice the removal of the existing pillars, should such demand, in the opinion of the senate of Hamburg, be justifiable in the interest of the public.

CONTRACT WITH THE CITY.

The chief features of the contract are:

The company is obliged, at its own expense, to erect and maintain in good order and condition the number of advertising pillars agreed upon [now one hundred] on such places on public streets or squares as shall be assigned to the company, free of rent, by the "Baudeputation" [building department, one of the Hamburg government departments]. The pillars are required to be built of glazed tiles or bricks, uniform and neat in appearance, and to be constructed in such a manner that they may also be used as public water (drinking) fountains. Whenever the department of finance, in the interest of the public, demands the removal of any of these pillars, the company is obliged to effect the same without delay; the cost connected therewith, however, is borne by the state of Hamburg, unless the removal is done at the company's own desire, and not in compliance with gov-

ernment orders. All the work connected with the installation and keeping in repair of the said drinking fountains, for which water is supplied by the city free of cost, is performed at the expense of the government.

The pillars are further arranged in such a manner that the interior may be used by the city as a receptacle for gravel, sand, or other strewing material for streets, and on the part of the company for the keeping of tools, utensils, waste paper, etc.

The company is obliged to comply strictly with any existing laws or police regulation, pertaining to posters and other advertising matter, and is in its entire management and service subject to a control on the part of the police department, having unconditionally to follow any orders the latter may deem proper to issue.

In the event of a continuous and persistent neglect on its part of any of the obligations the company assumed under said contract, the Hamburg government has the right to cancel the company's license. At the same time the Hamburg government bound itself neither to permit the use of any public buildings and grounds, with the surrounding fences or any other structures thereon, for the affixing of posters, private announcements and advertisements, signboards, billboards, and for advertising purposes in general, nor, further, to grant licenses to other companies, firms, or individuals for the erecting of advertising pillars, boards, or other structures for general public use in the city of Hamburg.

As a remuneration for the license and the use of public places for advertising pillars the "Anschlagsaulen-Gesellschaft" is required to turn over to the treasury of Hamburg twenty per cent. of its annual gross profits. According to a recent amendment to the original contract, this amount will later be increased to twenty-five per cent. Business losses, however, are borne by the company alone.

Advertising in the shape of paintings on walls or other parts of buildings is not subject to a permission on the part

of the police department, and cannot, therefore, be objected to. However, the affixing of bills, posters, placards, private notices, etc., on public buildings and other property is prohibited (this prohibition being based chiefly on the contract between the city and the "Anschlagsaulen-Gesellschaft"), whereas for the affixing of any advertising matter, private notices, etc., on private buildings, fences and plots the permission of the owner is required. The owners of private property have the right to permit the use thereof for advertising purposes, of which privilege ample use is made, numerous walls of houses, roofs, fences, etc., being let for advertising purposes of all kinds.

BILLBOARDS FORBIDDEN IN BERLIN.

Outdoor advertising displays are closely restricted in this city. Billboards, as they are known in the United States, are absolutely prohibited in Berlin, but in place of such oftentimes unsightly objects, public advertising is confined to a system of neat pillars or columns on the edge of the sidewalk at the principal street corners or intersection. These round, hollow columns (called "Litfass Saulen" after the originator) are built substantially of iron and wood, about twelve feet high and three feet in diameter, the exterior having an advertising surface of from eleven to twelve square meters. The pillars are used principally for the advertisements of theaters and other places of amusement, for the announcements of newspapers and periodicals, and official notices. They are a conspicuous feature of Berlin street life, and are consulted regularly by theater-goers, etc. Considerable artistic cleverness is displayed in the arrangement of the differently colored posters, which are mostly in the form of reading matter, and not pictures.

BERLIN DERIVES LARGE INCOME.

In April, 1901, the city of Berlin advertised for bids for the privilege of erecting and using these advertising columns within the limits of the city for the term of ten years, and the successful bidders are paying an annual

rental to the city of 400,000 marks ($95,200), payable quarterly. According to the terms of the lease, the city covenanted not to grant a similar license to anyone else. Newspaper kiosks, however, are permitted to have advertisements on their walls, consisting of wood, tin, iron, glass, etc. At that date there were 700 columns already erected, and the number was at once to be materially increased. The contractors were to erect them at their own cost, but both as to the design and location the approval of the police authorities was to be obtained, and they at once became the property of the city, all repairs and proper mainteance being performed by the contractors.

RIGHTS RESERVED BY THE MUNICIPALITY.

The city has the right to use the interior of the columns for various municipal purposes, such as storing utensils for street cleaning and sand for use in the streets, for switch apparatus, for public electric lights and meters for electric street railways, etc. These columns, therefore, are provided with doors and locks, and the contractors have to keep the interiors properly ventilated and free of moisture. Each column must also have distinctly marked on the upper portion of it the number of the city district and of the police station, the nearest post and telegraph office, the nearest fire-alarm station, the nearest sanitary station, the nearest accident station, and the nearest relief station. Delay in any payment or violation or neglect of any condition on the part of the contractors rends them liable to a fine up to 1,000 marks ($238), and may even cancel the lease. A bond for 50,000 marks ($11,900) was given for the fulfillment of the terms of the contract. The contractors have the exclusive right to use these billboards for advertising purposes, subject, however, to certain conditions.

The consul-general explains the rates for advertising which are regulated by the Berlin authorities. The charges are according to space occupied, the maximum varying from nine cents to fifty-nine cents per day, the latter being for

a space 19x29 inches. For placards larger than that the charges are in proportion.—*From the Report of Consul-General A. M. Thackera.*

BILL-POSTING IN FRANCE.

GOVERNMENT REGULATION OF PUBLIC ADVERTISING DISPLAYS.

The first enactment relating to the subject is a law, dated July 28, 1791, which is still in force, and prescribes that only a government poster or announcement may be printed on white paper. All others must be on colored paper—red, blue, yellow, etc. Every poster or other announcement painted, printed, or otherwise delineated upon a wall, building, or upon canvas or other sustaining device, is subject to a yearly tax as follows: In communes of less than 2,500 inhabitants, twelve cents per square meter; in communes from 2,500 to 40,000 inhabitants, thirteen cents; in cities over 40,000, twenty cents, and in Paris, thirty cents per square meter. This is for business or other announcements of more or less permanent character.

SECURING OFFICIAL PERMISSION.

Temporary "affiches" or posters are subject to a stamp tax according to size from two to six cents per sheet. This is attached either in the form of stamped paper on which the revenue stamp is applied to the sheet before being printed in such way that the stamp is canceled by the text being printed over it, or it may be attached adhesively afterward and canceled by a rubber stamp provided for that purpose.

But before being publicly displayed, each poster is required to be presented in duplicate at the office designated for that purpose, dated and signed either by the person in whose interest it is prepared or by the billposter who is charged with posting the same.

No one is permitted in France to deface streets and public places with crude, ostentatious announcements of his business or other subject. Billboards are infrequent in Paris, and are generally built permanently into a wall, where they are taxed according to their superficial area.

When a building is in construction, and board screens are erected to shield the public from dust and other annoyance, such temporary screen will soon be covered with posters of amusements and other business, but each poster so displayed has been previously submitted to the authorities, a license obtained, and each sheet bears the canceled revenue stamp, according to its size.

The department stores and other large popular retail establishments have permanent spaces in the stations of the Metropolitan subway, and their colored posters which are there displayed are always in good taste and often interesting as works of decorative art.

The walls of market houses bear permanent framed billboards for the display of administrative announcements. Agencies for the sale of theater, opera, and other amusement tickets, are permitted to display colored announcements of such performances inside their windows as posters, but the promiscuous placarding of patent medicines and drinks on houses, fences, and dead walls, is not permitted in this country. An owner has only to write "Défense d'afficher" (Forbidden to stick bills) on his property and the law will protect him from such desecration.

KINDS OF ADVERTISING STRUCTURES.

There are in Paris kiosks, or street structures, which are devoted to advertising or billposting chiefly as follows:

Round towers, known as the Colonnes Moris, made of wood and used mainly for posters of theaters and other amusements. This is the oldest form of kiosk in Paris, and comparatively few of them are now in use except on the leading boulevards and avenues.

The "Poste de vigie," or policeman's kiosk. This is a hexagonal kiosk used as a shelter by the policeman whose post is adjacent to the more important cab stands. Its panels of wood or glass are used for the more permanent class of business advertising, which is printed on the glass or posters covered by glass frames.

The news-stand kiosk serves as a shelter and depot for a dealer in newspapers and magazines, whose stock is usually displayed on shelves or tables under a tent awning or set up outside the kiosk. Paris is the paradise of newspaper venders, and kiosks of this class are common throughout the city. They are substantially built, and their panels serve for the permanent display of a large variety of advertisements.—*From the Report of Consul-General Frank H. Mason.*

IN BUENOS AIRES.

Outdoor advertising in this city is regulated by the municipality as to morality, etc., and advertisements cannot be placed anywhere within the city limits without the consent and authorization of the city authorities. Billboard advertising is handled exclusively by the municipality, which puts up the boards and rents the spaces. A tax is imposed upon every kind and variety of advertising, whether in street cars, railway stations, theaters, bars, restaurants, walls of houses, carts, or any building which is open to the public. The tax on all wall advertisements, theater curtains, etc., is $5 Argentine paper ($2.13 American currency) per meter (meter 39.37 inches) per year. Taxes on other kinds of advertisements vary from $5 to $15 per meter, according to class, size, etc., as set forth by the Ordenanza General de Impuestos, which can be obtained from the municipality.

The revenue derived by Buenos Aires from advertisements amounts to about $250,000 Argentine paper ($106,250 American currency) per year. Up to the present time there is no provision for city announcements in connection with any permitted advertising structures.

IN RIO JANEIRO.

Every sign in Rio de Janeiro is taxed. A café having a special "sorvete," or ice, to serve, makes a placard and hangs it to a doorpost, or to one of the palm trees in tubs which commonly decorate such establishments. The notice thus posted must have a revenue stamp attached. Perma-

nent signs are taxed on a permanent basis; temporary signs on a stamp basis. A sign "house for rent" bears a revenue stamp. Under such circumstances the tax on signboards or billboards is the expected thing, but naturally there is much less general use of such forms of advertising. As in the cities of the United States, a vacant corner on a frequented street is very likely to have some sort of a billboard arrangement, and temporary inclosures about buildings in course of construction are generally covered with more or less prominent signs, but these signs, being taxed, are regulated both in size and in other respects. Since it costs considerable in the way of taxes, as well as in the preparation of boards to erect such signs, there are few of them placed for short periods, and therefore little of bill or poster advertising. The outdoor signs, as a rule, are painted signs, and, in general, it may be said that they represent the best form of poster or billboard advertising.

LICENSING KIOSKS—GENERAL CITY REVENUE.

In a large number of suitable locations in parks, pleasure resorts, vacant street corners and the like, kiosks have been erected for the sale of light drinks and similar goods, and these structures are taken advantage of for outdoor advertising. As a general thing, the kiosk privilege carries with it the advertising privilege. There are also on the streets and avenues small, movable kiosks, often of so light a construction that the vender carries it about with him, goods and all. These also are licensed by the municipality, and generally carry advertising matter. From these several lines, the city of Rio de Janeiro, or rather the Federal District, which corresponds to the District of Columbia in the United States, but which is practically the municipality of Rio de Janeiro, derives an income of something over $40,000 a year.—*From Report of Consul-General George E. Anderson.*

American Art Museums

READERS of the series of articles entitled "The Story of American Painting" concluded in the May CHAUTAUQUAN cannot but have been impressed with the richness of American public art collections in the works of the great American painters. A dozen or more public galleries in our largest cities afford opportunities for the study of masterpieces and, as well, give an hospitable welcome to the exhibitions of local societies of artists whose work is often of decided interest and importance.

The stupid tariff upon art has, of course, prevented the accession of many masterpieces by foreign artists which would otherwise have found their way to America. Yet notwithstanding this restriction, fine examples of the great European masters are now owned by American galleries, usually the gift of wealthy and public spirited Americans. The removal of the art tariff which must ultimately be accomplished will doubtless add greatly to these foreign importations and in time raise American galleries to something like the standard attained by those of Europe. In some cases valuable works of art purchased abroad by Americans are there housed until such time as the removal of the tariff shall make their transference to galleries in this country feasible.

The benefits resulting from the establishment of art galleries are too obvious to require other than brief mention: they exert a great influence upon the public taste, present examples for the emulation of young artists, afford models for those engaged in the industrial arts, and serve as a final repository for the art wealth of a country. Museums grow by accretion, chiefly by voluntary gifts, and in the course of years, sooner or later, all the great art treasures of a country at first privately owned, find their way to them.

THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART.

Chief among American museums because of its large

collections as well as because of its location in our largest city is the Metropolitan Museum of Art of New York City. Its organization began as long ago as 1869 and in 1871 the first building was opened to the public. In 1871 the state legislature of New York made an appropriation of $500,000 for an art museum. In 1879 the collections already made were moved into this new building which was formally dedicated early in 1880. Later the city of New York appropriated $1,200,000 for a new and larger building. This was completed in part in 1902. In 1904 the city made a further appropriation of $1,250,000 for an extension. The city also contributes $160,000 a year to the maintenance of the Museum.

This brief outline recording the various extensions of the Museum suggests the ceaseless flow of bequests and purchases which make constant demands for increased space. A number of these bequests were of enormous value such as the collection of old masters given by Mr. Henry G. Marquand, and an endowment of several million dollars given by Mr. Jacob S. Rogers. Contributions of individual pictures such as the world famous "Horse Fair" by Rosa Bonheur, the gift of Mr. Cornelius Vanderbilt, are no less important.

The Metropolitan Museum contains fine examples of virtually all the great schools of painting and is therefore invaluable as a center of art influence. To glance over its large well illustrated catalogue will bring to notice fine examples of nearly all the great world artists including Rembrandt, Michaelangelo, Rubens, Van Dyke, Dürer, Holbein, Velasquez, Reynolds, Stuart, Corot, Israels, and Sargent. This is to name but a few. American painting is well represented.

Though the chief interest in the Museum's collection will for many reside in the paintings, statuary, porcelain, pottery, wood carving, textiles, glass, Egyptian antiquities, armor, and in fact all objects of artistic value, originals

or facsimiles, are represented by large exhibits. Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, president of the corporation, has contributed many fine collections representing the industrial arts. These are of immense practical value as they afford models for American manufacturers of artistic products,—furniture, glassware, pottery, textiles, and the like.

Not least important in the Metropolitan Museum are the loan collections exhibited often for an extended period and ultimately becoming the property of the Museum. Announcements of these collections, new accessions, and any matters of interest pertaining to the Museum are made monthly in a valuable little pamphlet known as the *Bulletin of the Metropolitan Museum of Art*. Those who wish to follow the varied activities of the Museum can do no better than to consult this interesting publication.

Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke is Director of the Museum.

THE ART INSTITUTE OF CHICAGO.

The Art Institute of Chicago recently claimed the distinction of drawing a greater yearly attendance of visitors than any other art museum in this country. This is due, in part, to its fine location on the lake front in the very heart of the city and in part to its fine collections. In these collections are some rare examples both of the old masters and of the best modern painters. Sculpture is finely represented by choice facsimiles, and other fields of art are well illustrated. A large and efficient art school is one of the chief features of the Chicago Art Institute.

THE BOSTON MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS.

The Boston Museum of Fine Arts is strong in several departments as notably in its Japanese collection which is famous the world over. Old Dutch and Spanish masters are scarcely less important with fine examples of Rembrandt and Velasquez. American art is well represented, the collection containing many fine modern works and many examples of great historical interest. The American exhibit is made most noteworthy, perhaps, through the unique collection of the paintings of Copley.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

THE PENNSYLVANIA ACADEMY OF THE FINE ARTS.

This, the oldest of the great American Galleries, has inaugurated recently a department which will be devoted to National Portraiture. The gallery already possesses portraits of Washington, Franklin, Morris, Clymer, Hopkinson, and Madison, and examples of historical interest by such portrait painters as West, Stuart, Vanderlyn, Peale, Rush, Inman, and Sully. This fine nucleus will, it is hoped, develop into a collection of great historical interest, containing portraits of the founders of the Republic, the State of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, and of men and women notable in American literature, science, the arts, and social life. The Pennsylvania Academy makes generous awards of prizes for works submitted in various competitions, and for traveling fellowships which makes possible art study abroad.

THE ST. LOUIS MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS.

St. Louis profited much by the Louisiana Purchase Ex-

Fifth Avenue Entrance to the Metropolitan Museum of Art.

Statuary in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City.

position at which many fine art works were exhibited, some remaining as a permanent possession of the city. A notable feature of the collections already made is the group of works by American sculptors—one of the finest in the country. It is planned to place the collection in the Exposition Art Palace, one of the features of the great fair of 1904. A further development of great originality and interest is a projected Hall of Architectural Styles representative of the best architectural styles, ancient and modern. This, when completed, should be of the greatest educational importance.

CORCORAN GALLERY OF ART, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The Corcoran Gallery, though possessing some modern French and Dutch paintings, is rich chiefly in the work of American artists, including some of the best modern landscapists, who are well represented. A fine collection of bronzes by Barye, the French sculptor of animals, is perhaps the most valuable possession of the gallery which is, however, also interesting for its collection of portraits of men celebrated in the official life of the country, notably many of the presidents. As yet, however, the gallery has no comprehensive permanent collections befitting its position in our capital city. The celebrated Evans' collection of modern American paintings, the best single collection of the sort in existence, is now on loan exhibition at the Corcoran Gallery. This collection will be housed in the National Gallery at Washington which is shortly to be built by the Smithsonion Institute.

THE FREER COLLECTION OF ART.

In 1906 Mr. Charles L. Freer of Detroit, Michigan, gave to the Smithsonian Institution his rare collection of paintings and art objects, the product of many years of careful search and study, as well as of vast expense. This collection, which will ultimately be housed in a special gallery in Washington, is of quite exceptional interest, in that it is confined to the work of Oriental artists and the four modern Americans, Whistler, Tryon, Thayer, and Dewing. The collection is designed to be an harmonious whole illustrating those char-

The Huntington Avenue Facade of the new Boston.

The Corcoran Gallery, Washington, D. C.

Museum of Fine Arts, plans for which have been completed.

Cincinnati Museum of Art.

The Art Institute, Chicago.

acteristics of art which find their best expression in the Japanese masters and in Whistler, characteristics which may be summed up as pure beauty of form and color, the permanent qualities which persist through the changing styles of art.

Second only to the choice selections from the best periods of Oriental art is the collection of Whistler's works embracing fifty oil paintings, forty water colors, thirty pastels, one hundred and twenty-three sketches, over six hundred etchings, one hundred and fifty lithographs, and the famous Peacock room complete. When this fine collection of Whistler's is housed with the work of his Oriental kindred and the three modern American painters of like aspiration, the city of Washington and the whole United States will possess an art treasure of the most satisfying sort. The

The Toledo Museum of Art, Toledo, Ohio.

collection is not to be increased or diminished after Mr. Freer's death, but will remain as complete and perfect as its collector can devise. It is now in Mr. Freer's home in Detroit where it is freely shown to connoisseurs and students.

THE ALBRIGHT ART GALLERY, BUFFALO.

The Albright Art Gallery of Buffalo is noted as perhaps the most beautiful building in this country devoted to the housing of art collections. It is built of white marble in the Ionic style of architecture and its appropriate setting in Buffalo's beautiful park, formerly the site of the Pan-American Exposition, makes it doubly effective. The east approach, a long series of marble steps facing the park lagoon is peculiarly attractive.

The Albright Gallery is owned by the Buffalo Fine Arts Academy which conducts an art school with courses in in-

The Albright Art Gallery, Buffalo, N. Y.

A Room in the Art Exhibition at Richmond, Indiana.

struction and practise. This combination of gallery and art school is one not unusual in this country and is of mutual benefit. That the Gallery is not lacking in public appreciation is witnessed by the increase in attendance from 88,890 in 1905, to 120,683 in 1907. Teachers in the public schools are permitted to bring their pupils on special days free of charge, a privilege well calculated to cultivate a democratic taste for art. A feature of the year 1907 was nineteen special exhibitions. From the collections thus displayed a number of pictures were sold and the Gallery itself acquired for its permanent collection several of these either by gift or purchase.

THE CINCINNATI MUSEUM.

The Cincinnati Museum is particularly rich in examples of modern German painting. Noteworthy among the other possessions of the Museum is the Robert Frederick Blum Memorial Collection. Blum was a native of Cincinnati and his home city thus honors one of her sons in displaying a full exhibit of his work. Many of the paintings are of Japanese inspiration. Yet others are of Dutch and Italian subjects. Like many of the best American art museums, the Cincinnati Museum maintains a well attended art academy.

THE TOLEDO MUSEUM OF ART.

The Toledo Museum of Art is one of the strongest among those situated in the smaller cities. The collections of paintings and statuary, though not large, are choice, conspicuous among the paintings being a fine group by modern Russian artists. American artists are also represented. The Museum possesses one of the finest collections of Egyptian antiquities to be found in this country.

THE ART ASSOCIATION OF RICHMOND, IND.

The Art Association of Richmond, Indiana, has been described before in THE CHAUTAUQUAN because of its importance in the movement to promote civic beauty. It affords a fine illustration of what may be done by a few public spirited individuals with only a little money but with a faculty for stirring up enthusiasm.

For eleven years the Richmond Association has held an annual exhibition of paintings, sculptures, and various art objects, particular attention being devoted to arts and crafts exhibits. The exhibition this year will be held from June 9 to 23 and will include fine modern American paintings secured in New York and Philadelphia, color photographs, arts and crafts creations of various kinds, bronzes, plaster casts, etc. Not the least interesting feature of this exhibition is the yearly acquisition of two or three fine pictures as the permanent property of the Association.

OTHER MUSEUMS.

This sketchy outline can but indicate the nature of the collections exhibited by a few of the chief American galleries. There are many others, some of major importance. Nor must the collections maintained in many of the smaller cities be ignored. In the communities they represent, these last are of as great educational value as the collections in the larger centers. A list of the public art galleries with permanent collections is appended.

Albright Gallery, Buffalo, N. Y.
Annmary Brown Memorial, Providence, R. I.
Art Institute of Chicago.
Athenæum, Boston.
Berkshire Athenæum, Pittsfield, Mass.
Barrow Art Gallery, Skaneateles, N. Y.
Boston Museum of Fine Arts.
Bridgeport Public Library, Bridgeport, Conn.
Brooklyn Institute of Fine Arts and Sciences.
Brown, James V., Library, Williamsport, Pa.
Carnegie Institute, Pittsburg, Pa.
Cleveland School of Art.
Cincinnati Museum Association.
Cooper Union Museum for the Arts of Decoration, New York.
Corcoran Gallery of Art, Washington, D. C.
Crocker Art Gallery, Sacramento, Cal.
Detroit Museum of Art.
Drexel Institute Museum, Philadelphia.
Essex Institute, Salem, Mass.
Fogg Museum, Cambridge, Mass.
Gardner Museum, Boston, Mass.
Germanic Museum, Cambridge, Mass.
Gibbes Memorial, Charleston, S. C.
Herron Art Institute, Indianapolis, Ind.
Hillyer Art Gallery, Northampton, Mass.
Hispanic Society of America, New York City.

John-Esther Gallery, Andover, Mass.
Layton Art Gallery, Milwaukee, Wis.
Lenox Art Gallery, New York Public Library.
Linton-Surget Art Gallery, New Orleans, La.
Mark Hopkins Institute, San Francisco, Cal.
Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.
Museum for the Arts of Decoration, New York.
Museum of Science and Art, University of Pennsylvania.
National Gallery of Art, Washington, D. C.
New Britain Art Institute, New Britain, Conn.
Oakland Art Gallery, Oakland, Cal.
O'Connor Art Gallery, Washington, D. C.
Olney Art Gallery, Oberlin, Ohio.
Park Gallery of Art, Burlington, Vt.
Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, Philadelphia.
Pennsylvania Museum, Philadelphia, Pa.
Perkins Fine Arts Building, Colorado Springs, Colo.
Piedmont Art Gallery, Oakland, Cal.
Poland Springs Art Gallery, South Poland, Me.
Portland (Ore.) Art Association.
Prendergast Art Gallery, Jamestown, N. Y.
Providence Athenæum.
Ranney Collection, State University, Iowa City, Iowa.
Redwood Library and Athenæum, Newport, R. I.
Rhode Island School of Design, Providence.
Scranton Museum, Scranton, Pa.
Slater Museum, Norwich, Conn.
Southampton Art Museum.
Spring Garden Institute Museum, Philadelphia, Pa.
Saint Johnsbury Athenæum, Saint Johnsbury, Vt.
Saint Louis Museum of Fine Arts.
San Francisco Institute of Art.
Searles Art Gallery, San Francisco, Cal.
Slater Art Museum, Norwich, Conn.
Springfield Art Museum, Springfield.
Stanford University, Leland Stanford, Jr., Museum.
Syracuse Museum of Fine Arts, Syracuse, N. Y.
Telfair Academy of Fine Arts and Sciences, Savannah, Ga.
Toledo Museum of Art, Toledo, Ohio.
Trumbull Gallery, New Haven, Conn.
University of Illinois, Champaign and Urbana, Ill.
University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.
University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.
University of Vermont, Burlington, Vt.
Valentine Museum, Richmond, Va.
Wadsworth Athenæum, Hartford, Conn.
Walker Art Gallery, Brunswick, Me.
Walker Art Gallery, Minneapolis.
Washington State Art Association, Seattle, Wash.
Weston Gallery of Art, Kansas City.
Wilstach Gallery, Fairmount Park, Philadelphia.
Wood Art Gallery, Montpelier, Vt.
Worcester Art Museum, Worcester, Mass.

Economics of the Drink Traffic

By George B. Waldron, A. M.

THE year 1907 brought a very large access of territory under prohibition in the United States. On January 1, 1907, there were three states containing an estimated total population of 2,600,000 under state-wide prohibition: Maine 725,000 North Dakota 390,000, and Kansas 1,485,000. During the following twelve months there were added three more states, with a total estimated population of 6,000,000: Oklahoma 1,400,000, Georgia 2,500,000, and Alabama 2,100,000.

Thus in one year the population under state-wide prohibition was more than trebled. During this present year, 1908, the state of Mississippi, with an estimated population of 1,800,000 has been added under a state prohibitory law that takes effect in January, 1909. Besides this large population under state-wide prohibition there are estimated to be about thirty million people more, in some thirty-seven other states, who are living in local prohibition territory.

Changes equally noteworthy have been made in outlawing the saloon in cities during recent months. On January 1 last, including those cities in prohibition states, there were under prohibition thirty cities of 20,000 population and over, with a total of about 1,600,000 people. Fourteen of these cities, with a population of some 845,000, were added during the year 1907. In other words the population of prohibition cities of above 20,000 people has been more than doubled within a single year.

There are today eleven cities of over 50,000 each that prohibit the sale of intoxicants, and six of these were added in 1907. The new list includes such cities as Atlanta, Savannah, and Birmingham coming in under state law, and Lynn, Worcester, and Knoxville under local option.

What is the meaning of this marked apparent change in public sentiment toward the liquor traffic? Some hold

that it is but the flood of a popular wave, like that of sixty years ago, which will soon subside. Others see the first fruits of the temperance education that has been in progress since the days of Hon. "Billy" J. Clark and Dr. Lyman Beecher.

Aside from any questions as to personal and social effects of intoxicants the economic aspects of the traffic would be enough to arrest attention. Here is a business that admittedly involves the transfer of hundreds of millions of dollars every year. Looking at the question purely from the point of view of cold figures, what are some of the effects of this traffic upon other lines of business, upon the working man who produces and distributes intoxicants, upon the farmer who furnishes the raw material? Blot out the traffic and to what extent, if at all, will the economic loss fall upon the working man and farmer?

The first inquiry will be as to the extent of the traffic. What is a fair estimate of the annual cost to the consumer of intoxicating liquors? The United States Treasury Department in 1887 asked Mr. F. N. Barrett, editor of *The American Grocer* of New York City, to make an estimate of the retail cost of the liquor traffic for that year. Mr.

Growth of state prohibition in two years: In 1909, states with a population of 7,800,000 will be entirely prohibition.

Barrett's figures were published in detail and were afterwards found to agree substantially with those of the late Mr. Edward Atkinson of Boston, who had made an independent estimate for the same year. These figures were assailed at the time by the liquor interests as being too large, and by the temperance people as too small. It may be concluded, therefore, that these estimates were as near the truth as estimates can well be. The figures have changed in twenty years but the methods then used may still stand as the best within our reach. These methods are followed substantially in the estimates here made for recent years.

Government figures supply the basis. The latest at hand are from the statistical abstract of the United States for 1906, page 530. They are the official estimate of actual consumption of the various kinds of intoxicants for the year ended June 30, 1906. Spirits are returned in "proof" gallons which are much stronger in alcohol than are the actual spirits of commerce. The gain from the addition of water to reduce this strength is probably offset by the alcohol used in the arts and sciences but not withdrawn under the new law providing for "denatured" alcohol.

Following is the estimate in detail of the retail cost of the traffic in intoxicants for the year ended June 30, 1906:

THE DRINK BILL OF THE NATION. 1906.

Kinds of Liquors.	Gallons consumed.	Retail cost. per gal.	Retail cost. total.	Per Capita. Cost.	Per Capita. Gallons.
Distilled spirits:					
Domestic	124,743,255	$5.00	$623,716,275	$7.41	1.48
Imported	3,011,289	8.00	24,090,312	.29	.04
Malt Liquors:					
Domestic	1,694,021,375	.50	847,010,688	10.06	20.13
Imported	5,964,267	1.00	5,964,267	.07	.07
Wines:					
Domestic	39,847,044	2.00	79,694.088	.95	.47
Imported	6,638,179	4.00	26,552,716	.32	.08
Total	1,874,225,409		$1,607,028,346	$19.10	22.27

The retail cost of the drink traffic, as here estimated, reaches enormous proportions, amounting to $1,607,028,346

for the fiscal year 1906. This is an average per capita of $19.10 on the officially estimated population of 84,154,000. But the consumption of intoxicants is also enormous, reaching 1,874,225,409 gallons of all kinds of liquors, or 22.27 gallons per capita for the same period.

There is some variation in these figures from year to year, but there has been a very steady gain in the drink bill for many years as shown by the accompanying table based on similar government figures and by the same methods since the year 1886.

RETAIL TRAFFIC FOR TWENTY YEARS.

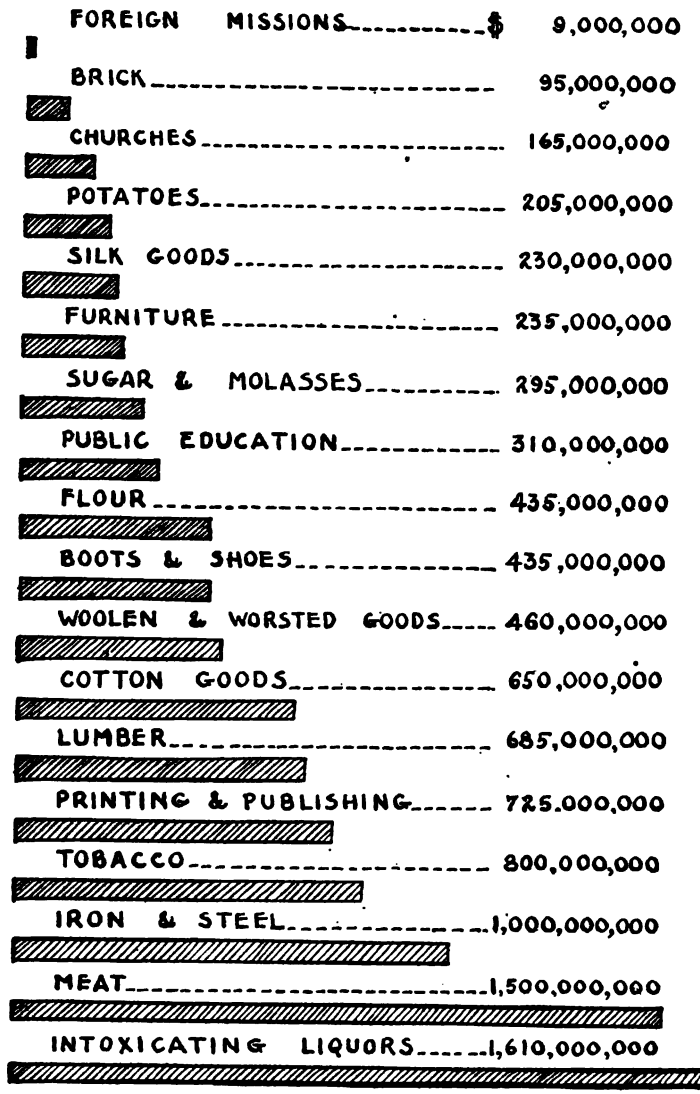
Year.	Retail cost.	Per Capita. Cost.	Gallons.
1886	$ 717,069,816	$12.50	12.90
1887	762,599,015	13.00	13.99
1888	818,087,725	13.64	14.67
1889	840,880,849	13.72	14.60
1890	902,645,867	14.41	15.53
1891	979,582,803	15.34	17.19
1892	1,014,894,364	15.59	17.10
1893	1,079,483,172	16.27	18.20
1894	1,024,621,491	15.15	16.96
1895	970,947,333	14.09	16.57
1896	962,094,975	13.69	17.12
1897	993,203,557	13.87	16.49
1898	1,041,445,511	14.28	17.36
1899	1,070,273,959	14.40	16.81
1900	1,171,757,382	15.36	17.68
1901	1,219,595,977	15.71	17.90
1902	1,348,040,847	17.06	19.49
1903	1,410,385,942	17.44	19.98
1904	1,463,517,688	17.90	20.35
1905	1,465,718,536	17.63	20.38
1906	1,607,028,346	19.10	22.27

A study of the table shows that the total annual retail cost of the traffic has more than doubled during the last twenty years, and the per capita cost has increased more than fifty per cent. Such a business must have tremendous economic effects upon the industry and wealth of the nation, and this apart from any consideration of the physical and moral results from the liquors consumed.

The increase in the consumption of liquors during the last twenty years.

The total amount of wealth produced in the census year 1900 from the various sources of agriculture, mining, manufactures, transportation, and trade, so far as it can be estimated, was $18,659,000,000. During the same year the liquor traffic cost $1,171,000,000, or an average of about one dollar for every sixteen produced. This proportion holds practically the same for other years. The total wealth production in 1906 was approximately $24,000,000,000 and the liquor traffic cost $1,607,000,000 or about one dollar in fifteen produced. The accompanying diagram (page 101) shows the relative and absolute national cost of a number of leading necessities compared with intoxicants for the year 1906.

What does the drink traffic pay in exchange for this drain upon the wealth of the nation? There are the customs and internal revenues collected by the Federal Government, which in 1906 amounted to $205,247,000. (See statistical abstract, page 107), as follows:



Where our money goes.

GOVERNMENT REVENUES FROM LIQUORS.

	Customs.	Internal.
Distilled spirits	$ 6,556,000	$137,067,000
Malt liquors	1,508,000	54,651,000
Wines	5,465,000	
Total	$13,529,000	$191,718,000

The latest figures at hand for state and local revenues from the traffic are from the census of 1890. They amounted that year to $24,786,496, which was 2.75 per cent. of the total retail traffic of the year. The same percentage in 1906 would bring this state and local income from the saloons up to $33,393,000. On this basis the total national, state, and local returns from the traffic for the fiscal year 1906 were approximately $238,640,000 or 15½ per cent. of the gross retail cost of the traffic. Out of this must come the cost of collecting these revenues, amounting to some $4,000,000. The traffic, therefore, returns directly about 15 per cent. of its total receipts.

Consider now the relation of the traffic to the farmer. The production of distilled and malt liquors makes a heavy demand upon the farmer for grain and other raw materials. The internal revenue report for the year ended June 30, 1907, shows that over 57 per cent. of the barley crop raised in 1906, and nearly 19 per cent. of the rye crop went into the breweries and distilleries. Grains to the total farm value of $54,434,427 were demanded from the farmer in the fiscal year 1907. Nearly all the hop crop and molasses equivalent to the entire home production of the nation, besides large quantities of grapes and other fruit, are also required for the production of liquors.

This is a strong statement if taken at its face value, but there are other considerations. The total demand upon the farmers by the distilleries and breweries is for but a very small part of the farmer's total products. Take the grain crop alone for 1906 as shown in the following table, which covers the materials used in producing over 94 per cent. of all our home manufactured intoxicants:

GRAINS USED TO MAKE LIQUORS.

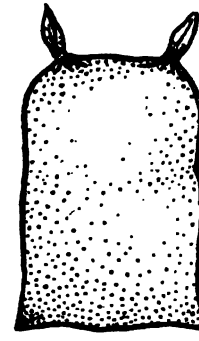
Grains.	Total crop 1906. Bushels.	Used for liquors, 1907. Bushels.	*Per cent.
Barley	178,916,484	102,088,016	57.06
Rye	33,374,833	6,250,898	18.73
Wheat	735,260,970	21,452	.003
Corn	2,927,416,091	23,474,509	.80
Oats	964,904,522	17,301	.002
Total	4,839,872,900	131,852,176	2.73

*Per cent. of total crop.

Cut out the liquor traffic and only the barley and rye farmers would be able to detect any practical difference in the grain markets. Even with barley and rye included the liquor industry demands less than three per cent. of the total crop of these five grains. There is yet another side to this question of the farmer that will be taken up in connection with the wage earners of the breweries and distilleries.

The production of intoxicants gives employment to a large number of working men. The latest figures are for the census of 1905. If the wine industry be estimated to include all the products of the smaller establishments, the total number of workers engaged in making intoxicants will reach about 60,000 and their yearly wages will total over $40,000,000. To these should be added some thousands

132,000,000 Bu.



4,340,000,000 Bu.

Of a grain crop of 4,340,000,000 bu., but 132,000,000 bu. are used in the production of liquor—one thirty-seventh of the whole.

59,233 406,214

In the liquor industries 59,233 workmen employed in the creation of a product valued at $1,400,000,000. In other industries, for the creation of a product of equal value 406,214 workmen necessary—a ratio of one to more than six.

of workers employed in cooperage, bottling, etc., whose products are demanded for the liquor industry. What effect upon this army of working men would result from the closing of the breweries, distilleries and wineries?

The 1905 census may suggest an answer. The consumption of domestic liquors that year amounted at retail to a little over $1,400,000,000. In the table that follows are shown the number of men employed, the wages they received, and the raw materials used in making these liquors:

COMPARISONS BETWEEN LIQUOR AND OTHER INDUSTRIES.

Manufactures.	Workers.	Wages.	Raw Materials.
Distilled spirits	5,355	$ 2,657,025	$ 25,625,858
Malt liquors	48,139	34,542,897	74,911,619
Wines	5,739	3,004,662	17,080,182
Total intoxicants	59,233	40,204,584	117,617,659
*All other industries	406,214	198,278,986	625,333,479
Difference	346,981	$158,074,402	$507,715,820

*The figures as to "all other industries" show the number of workers, the wages paid and the raw materials demanded in making all manufactures except liquors to the retail value of $1,400,000,000 which is also the estimated retail value of the intoxicants produced.

235,235 1,250,667

The creation of liquors valued at $1,400,000,000 makes use of the grain produced by 233,233 farmers. In other industries a product of equal value requires the crops produced by 1,250,667 farmers—a ratio of one to more than five.

The table makes very striking comparisons. Take, for example, the number of workers employed. The manufacture of $1,400,000,000 of liquor requires 59,233 workers per year. But the same retail value of all other manufactures besides liquor gives employment to 406,214 workers. In other words, if the $1,400,000,000 spent in 1905 for drink had been used instead for other manufactures there would have been employment for 346,981 *more workers* than were actually at work making intoxicants. And these men would have received $158,074,402 *additional* wages.

Nor is this all. The raw materials used in making these liquors amounted to $117,617,659. Had the $1,400,000,000 been spent in manufactures other than drink the raw materials demanded of the farmer would have been $625,333,479. So that the farmer would have profited by the difference or $507,715,820.

In 1900 the average value of farm products per farm worker was $359. Since that time farm products have risen in value. At $500 per farm worker the raw materials demanded of the farmer for the production of intoxicants in 1905 gave employment to 235,235 farmers. Had the drink money been spent for other manufactures instead, the raw materials

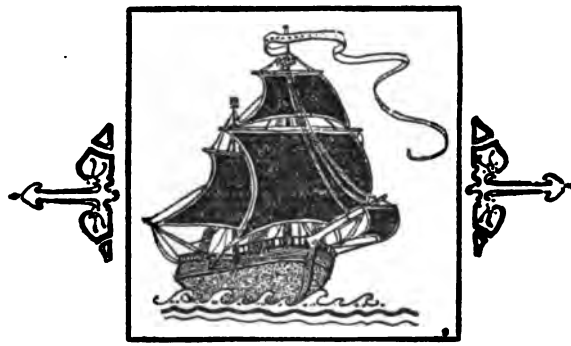
demanded would have employed 1,250,667 farmers. That is, 1,015,432 *more farmers* would have found employment. Had the nation spent its money for more comforts and necessities in 1905 instead of intoxicants, there would therefore have been work for 346,981 *more* people in the factories and for 1,015,432 *more* farmers to supply the raw materials. This is a total of 1,362,413 more workers that would have had employment. Such results as these seem almost incredible. But they are based on most conservative estimates from official figures. Following the same facts, the $1,600,000,000 spent in 1906 for intoxicants, if spent instead for necessities, comforts, and luxuries for the family, would have given employment to over 1,500,000 more people in the factory and on the farm. And this, apart from any consideration of the advantages to the homes from better use of this money. From the purely economic point of view, therefore, the liquor traffic cannot stand the test.

The accompanying table gives comparisons based upon the census of 1905, of the returns to working man and farmer, from wages and raw materials required for each $100 spent at retail for the various kinds of intoxicants and for the leading necessities and comforts demanded in the home.

CONTRASTS FOR WAGE EARNER AND FARMER.

$100 worth of	Wages.	Raw Materials
Distilled spirits	$ .51	$ 4.87
Malt liquors	4.63	10.04
Wines	3.61	25.27
Total intoxicants	2.87	8.40
All other industries	14.50	45.74
Boots and shoes	16.18	46.24
Bread, cakes, etc	12.81	46.29
Brick and tile	32.21	18.35
Carpets and rugs	16.71	46.21
Carriages and wagons	19.70	39.07
Cheese, butter, etc	4.00	67.98
Clothing, men's	12.05	39.14
Cooperage	15.35	50.33

Cotton goods	16.02	47.70
Flour and grist mill products	2.00	69.56
Furniture	23.42	34.56
Hats and caps	21.48	34.78
Hosiery and knit goods	17.32	42.07
Iron and steel	12.50	54.77
Leather, tanned and curried	8.56	60.54
Lumber, dressed	16.40	4628.
Paints	5.76	51.62
Paper and wood pulp	13.58	47.16
Printing, book and job	21.34	23.03
Printing, newspaper	15.47	18.20
Saddlery and harness	13.62	42.40
Shipbuilding	26.50	33.95
Shirts	16.53	37.73
Silk and silk goods	15.63	42.69
Slaughtering and meat packing	3.70	70.46
Sugar refining	2.28	73.56
Woolen goods	15.23	46.32
Worsted goods	11.89	49.62



City Government by Commission

A SYMPOSIUM ON THE GALVESTON, NEWPORT, AND DES MOINES PLANS.

Editorial reference has been made in this magazine to experiments with Commission plans for city government in the United States.

After the Galveston disaster, in an extraordinary emergency, the government of the Texas city was turned over to five commissioners, and the change attracted widespread attention. All legal difficulties have been met, and other Texas cities have followed Galveston's example in the last few years.

In Newport, Rhode Island, another plan has been put into effect, which is essentially an adaptation of the old New England "town meeting" to modern conditions. And a Commission of executive officers is thereby secured.

In Iowa, what is known as the Des Moines Plan, has been adopted, and recently sustained by decision of the Supreme Court of the State. This also is a Commission system adopted thus far by Des Moines and Cedar Rapids—but the Commission is elected not by wards but at large. Referendum, initiative and power of recall are provided for and other provisions for popular democratic government are noteworthy.

We are privileged to bring together for publication here, authoritative papers on these experiments which were prepared and given at the last convention of the National Municipal League. Their pertinence to the crucial problem of good city government in this country needs no editorial emphasis.

A. J. Mathis, Mayor of Des Moines, Iowa.

H. A. Landes, Mayor-President Of Galveston, Texas.

John T. Carmody, Mayor of Cedar Rapids, Iowa.

William P. Clarke, Mayor of Newport, R. I.

Mayors of the four Cities now testing new Plans of Municipal Government.

The Galveston Plan

By William Bennett Munro, Ph.D.

Assistant Professor of Government in Harvard University.

The recent growth in popularity of the "commission" system of city government is no doubt the offspring of a more or less widespread dissatisfaction with the complexity of contemporary American municipal administration. Paradoxical as it may seem, however, this curious system which students of comparative politics know as the "American type" of city government, with its division of powers, its diffusion of responsibility, and its bewildering mechanism of checks and balances, has evolved logically from the crude framework of local government applied to the colonial boroughs by the British authorities. This simple system, consisting of a mayor and a small council, the former with no special executive functions, no veto power, and no right of making appointments to office, has been maintained by the English cities down to the present day; and to its very simplicity much of the efficiency which characterizes British municipal administration must, without doubt, be attributed.

After the American Revolution, however, and especially after the adoption of the federal Constitution, the system of municipal government as transplanted to this side of the Atlantic underwent a gradual but very important change; for the influence of the "federal analogy" dominated decisively the course of organic development in all the areas of local administration. A study of the civic charters granted at about the beginning of the nineteenth century will, in almost every case, disclose the desire of municipalities to copy at every point the complex mechanism of the federal government. The mayor had come to be an independent executive officer, with a power of veto over local legislation, with the right of appointment subject to confirmation, and with a variety of other administrative prerogatives which the lapse of a century has greatly augmented. The municipal coun-

cil has likewise become bicameral, apparently for no good reason save that the demands of analogy had seemed so to dictate. In short, it seems to have been assumed that a framework of government devised to reconcile the jarring interests of a dozen independent states would bear reproduction in miniature, and would prove efficient in application to comparatively small urban units of a thoroughly homogeneous character. For three quarters of a century the cities of the United States have expended much political energy in attempting to patch an administrative garment which was not devised with an eye to their direct requirements. It may be doubted whether they have succeeded in doing more than to make the misfit more pronounced. They have been weighted down with an administrative organization which has sacrificed the highly essential qualities of efficiency and promptness in action to a blind adherence to the principle of "division of powers," heedless of the fact that the proper governance of a municipality makes no urgent demands whatever for any strict recognition of this principle. Steering wide of centralization of powers they have, however, floundered into the slough of a hopelessly divided jurisdiction with its unfortunate accompaniment of diffused responsibility.

A logical result of all this has been a reaction against the very cumbrousness of municipal machinery—a reaction which has manifested itself in some cities by the abolition of bicameral councils and the substitution of single elective bodies. In other cases the dominant influence in civic administration has been transferred to the mayor, the local legislative authority being thus shorn of nearly all its jurisdiction. Even more frequently the delicate adjustment of powers has been ruthlessly disturbed by the direct intervention of state authorities and the assumption of purely municipal functions by state boards. This movement toward definiteness in the location of responsibility has proceeded slowly, but none the less effectively, during the last quarter of a century, as may be readily seen by any one who chooses

to study the history of municipal organization in cities like Boston or New York. The system of "government by commission" must, therefore, be regarded, not as a new experiment successfully conducted by a few scattered cities, but as the climax of a well-defined movement, from the influence of which hardly a single large city in the country has been entirely exempt.

THE GALVESTON EXPERIMENT.

Galveston, as is well known, was the first American city to give the system of "government by commission" a trial. The Texan city, having been called upon to pass through the dark waters of affliction, found itself, in 1900, face to face with practical bankruptcy. Under the old system of government by a mayor and sixteen aldermen the finances of the municipality had been badly mismanaged and the authorities had fallen into the disastrous practice of bonding the city to provide for annual deficits. In less than twenty years nearly three millions of debt had been accumulated in this way alone. The enormous new demands upon the civic treasury presented by the calamity in 1900 brought matters to such a crisis that the Texan Legislature found itself called upon by the business men of Galveston to take heroic measures for dealing with the financial problem. The old municipal framework was abolished root and branch, and by a new charter, granted in 1901, the administration of the city was entrusted to five commissioners, three of whom were to be appointed by the governor and two elected by the citizens of Galveston. Before long, however, the constitutionality of the charter was called into question, and the Supreme Court of Texas decided that certain functions which the commissioners had been authorized to assume could not be exercised except by elective officers. In March, 1903, therefore, the Legislature was appealed to for an amendment to the charter making all the commissioners elective, and the five original commissioners were forthwith endorsed by the voters at the polls.

The Galveston charter, as amended in 1903, provides for the popular election, every two years, of five commissioners, one of whom is given the title of mayor-president. All are elected at large. The mayor-president is presiding officer of the commission but otherwise has no special powers. By a majority vote of the five commissioners all municipal ordinances are passed, and all appropriations are voted, the mayor-president having no right to veto either absolute or qualified. The commissioners likewise, by majority vote, apportion among themselves the headships of the four main departments of civic administration, namely, finance and revenue, waterworks and sewerage, police and fire protection, and streets and public property; the mayor-president having no special department but exercising a general coördinating influence over all. A single commissioner is, therefore, immediately responsible for the administration of each department. The commission as a whole draws up and passes the annual budget, awards all contracts, and makes all important appointments. Minor appointments are made by the individual commissioners each in his own special department. There is throughout a complete centralization of all powers, legislative and administrative, and a very definite location of all responsibility.

THE RESULTS IN GALVESTON.

No one who has made any impartial attempt to follow the work of the Galveston commission during the last six years will venture to gainsay its very striking success. The financial condition of the city has been most decidedly improved; all the municipal services have been brought to a much higher point of efficiency; a better grade of citizens has been found willing to seek and accept civic office; and the general tone of municipal administration has been very noticeably raised. The commissioners present, in their reports, such a convincing array of facts that it would be idle to question the success of the new regime. This success has been attributable in general to three or four canons of policy, from which the commissioners have not swerved

during the last five years, and which may be summed up as (1) the use of approved business methods in civic financing; (2) the entire elimination of all leakages in expenditures; (3) the making of all appointments on the basis of individual efficiency; and (4) the strict accountability of each commissioner for the on-goings of his own department. All the improvements of the last half decade in the Texan city can be attributed, substantially, to the fact that the new system of government has rendered strict adherence to these fundamental rules of sound municipal administration possible and even imperative.

It is not necessary to speak in any detail of specific advances made in municipal administration by Galveston under the system of government by commission. It is enough that these were readily noted by neighboring Texan cities, and that the latter soon bestirred themselves to the task of inaugurating a similar framework of administration. Since 1903 charters fundamentally similar to that of Galveston have been sought and obtained by five other cities of Texas: Houston, Fort Worth, Austin, Dallas, and El Paso. The experience, moreover, was not lost upon many cities in the North, and during the last two or three years measures have been introduced into the legislatures of at least a dozen states all aiming to permit cities to simplify their framework of administration more or less generally in accord with the Texan plan. At its last session the Legislature of Iowa put such a measure upon the statute books, rendering optional to all cities of over 25,000 population the adoption of the commission system. This privilege has already found acceptance in the capital city of Des Moines; in this case provision being made for the employment of certain advanced methods of securing the strict and consistent responsibility of the authorities to their constituents.

THE SYSTEM NOT A NEW ONE IN AMERICA.

Despite a general impression that the commission system of local administration is a novelty in American govern-

ment, the principle involved is by no means new in the United States. It is in almost no important respect different from the New England system of town government by a board of selectmen, who, with their chairman, assume and concentrate in themselves all administrative and legislative functions from one annual election until the next. There are many New England "towns" with populations quite large enough to entitle them to rank as cities, which have, for more than a century, maintained what is to all intents and purposes a system of government by commission. Their selectmen, who are chosen by the people at large, represent in their jurisdiction a complete fusion of local power and responsibility. In every state of the Union, moveover (with the exception of Louisiana and Rhode Island), county administration has been vested almost wholly in the hands of an elective commission. The use of the term "commission" has misled many into overlooking a system with which they have long been familiar under a different designation. American cities have had occasion, no doubt, to become familiar with "commissions," but with commissions of a very different sort.

THE MERITS OF THE COMMISSION PLAN.

No aspect of the general problem of municipal reform has received more attention in the press and on the platform during the last year than the merits and defects of the commission plan. In the main, however, these discussions have dwelt largely upon the advantages of the system, many of which are almost too obvious to require emphasis. The defects, on the other hand, do not appear on the surface so plainly, though a closer examination will disclose that the system of government by commission, if generally applied to American cities under present conditions, would in all probability encounter important objections which no real friend of permanent municipal reform ought to treat lightly. Some of these relative merits and defects may be briefly noticed, so far as it may be accounted safe to generalize in the light of American municipal experience.

The cardinal advantage of the system is that it affords definite hope of putting an end to the intolerable decentralization of responsibility which now characterizes American civic administration. By concentrating powers and focusing public attention upon a narrow area it will render more effective the scrutiny which the voters may apply to the conduct of men in public office. If the system does not guarantee efficient administration, it at least promises to disclose where the blame for inefficiency should be made to fall. It will undoubtedly facilitate the election of a higher type of men, for American municipal experience has plainly demonstrated that small bodies with large powers attract a better class of citizens than large bodies with restricted jurisdiction. The reduction in numbers of the school boards of St. Louis, Boston, and other large cities have served to show the truth of this aphorism in conclusive fashion. Even though party organizations may continue to dictate the nomination of commissioners, as they now do that of councilmen, these organizations will no longer be placed under pressure to give representation to every sectional, racial, and religious interest at the cost of placing inferior men in candidacy. That government by commission will eliminate partisan candidatures is something scarcely to be hoped for; but there is good reason to believe that it would remove from party organizations much of the sinister pressure with which these have now to contend.

Again, it is well known that municipal corruption nowadays arises as frequently from the power of municipal authorities to thwart the meritorious plans of public-service corporations as from their power to forward reprehensible projects. If the present system of checks and balances puts a restriction upon the ill-considered granting away of privileges, it none the less puts a premium upon the withholding of rights which should, in the public interest, be granted without hesitation. It is extremely doubtful whether the chances of obtaining a municipal franchise at the present time in any large city are properly proportioned to the merits

of an application therefor. A small commission would, indeed, simplify the task of dealing with civic franchises on a business basis, and, if there be any fear that the unchecked power of granting municipal franchises is a jurisdiction too momentous to be vested in the hands of a small body, provision may be made, as in the Des Moines charter, for having the acts of the commission in this sphere subject to ratification by the voters.

Still again, as we are frequently reminded, the work of administering the affairs of a city is in every essential respect akin to that of conducting the affairs of a private business corporation. Now, the salient characteristic of sound corporate management is the centralization of powers in the hands of a small board of directors. What, we are asked, would be thought of a business corporation which intrusted the management of its interests to a bicameral board, made up of classes of members selected in different ways, representing different interests, possessing separate jurisdictions, and designed to embody a system of checks and balances? Why should the affairs of a municipality demand an administrative machinery so much more complex than that of the largest private corporation? There is danger, however, of pressing this point too far, for it must be remembered that the analogy between the work of the municipal and that of the private corporation is by no means perfect. The city, for example, enjoys many legal privileges and immunities which an ordinary business corporation does not possess. It is not legally responsible for the torts of its police officers, of the employes of its fire department, or for those of several other classes of its agents; whereas the private corporation is directly liable to be heavily mulcted for the negligence or inefficiency of those whom it takes into its service. Furthermore, in determining matters of policy the authorities of a municipality must give weight to many considerations of social well-being which the management of a private corporation may afford to neglect. It must be admitted, too, that administration by a board of directors is not necessarily

synonymous with integrity and efficiency. One need not go far afield to find instances in which directors have been deficient in their knowledge of affairs immediately in their care, or in which they have personally profited at the expense of those interests which they were chosen to guard. Nevertheless, it may be said with truth, that there is plenty of room for the infusion of "business principles" into civic administration, and the analogy, if not pushed too far, has much force.

The system of government by commission will serve to render municipal administration more prompt and more effective in action. In a multitude of counsellors there may be wisdom, but there is also, almost inevitably, friction, delay, and intriguery. A system of division of powers is almost certain to counterbalance what it gains in security against hasty and arbitrary action with what it loses in inability to cope with problems which demand prompt, united and uncompromising attention. In local administration promptness and efficiency are imperative; and it may be properly urged that, in order to secure these essential qualities, a municipality is justified in weakening its organs of deliberation, and in assuming a reasonable amount of risk that concentrated power will be abused.

There are, no doubt, many incidental advantages which cities may reasonably hope to secure from the introduction of the commission system, and to these the experience of Galveston bears abundant testimony. Most of these, however, are relative to the existing conditions in particular cities, and may not, therefore, be dealt with in general terms.

To the casual student the defects of the commission system are, perhaps, not so apparent as the merits. They exist, nevertheless, and are of sufficient importance to demand careful and judicious consideration; for the cause of municipal reform may receive permanent injury through the open advocacy by its friends of any plan of administration which has not been adequately studied in the light of con-

ditions which now exist or are likely to exist in American cities.

The most common objection urged in the public press and by the rank and file of municipal politicians is that the plan is un-American and undemocratic; that it involves a radical departure from American traditions of local self-government and proposes a step in the direction of municipal dictatorships. This objection is as easy to raise as it is difficult to support. The present framework of municipal administration, with its division of powers, is not a whit more traditionally "American" than is the New England town system of government by a board of selectmen with no division of powers whatever. That the system of administration by a small body of men tends to remove control "away from the people" is an assertion which the whole history of local government in the United States absolutely refutes. Indeed, it has been proven time and again that a single elective officer may, in his official actions, more faithfully reflect public opinion than a large body of elected representatives. Much of the latent and unreasoning prejudice against the new plan springs, no doubt, from the popular association of the "commission" with the idea of state interference in municipal matters.

The observant DeTocqueville once remarked that local government is to national what the elementary school is to the university; that each in its respective sphere performs the work of preparation. Political education, it has been observed, consists in the exercise not only of the right to choose but of the right to be chosen—in candidacy and in service—and under the present municipal régime such education is annually afforded to a large number of citizens. The plan of government by commission proposes greatly to reduce this number. It would cut down the list of elective officers to four or five, all other posts being filled by appointment presumably for long terms. This policy, it is objected, would tend to vest the work of civic administration permanently in the hands of a very few men, and might very well assist in

the development, as in the German cities, of a professional city bureaucracy. The present multiplication of elective offices affords to a unique degree the opportunity for a large number of citizens to be brought into touch with local political affairs and to obtain such political education as this contact involves.

THE SYSTEM WILL TEND TO INCREASE THE INFLUENCE OF PARTY ORGANIZATIONS.

Again, objection is made that the system will serve to strengthen rather than to weaken the influence of the regular partisan organizations in civic affairs. The concentration of power and patronage in the hands of a few commissioners would, it is claimed, make it seem imperative to the party leaders that the commission should be controlled; and the party energies, now spread over a wider area, would thus be concentrated at a single point. It is quite true that whenever the power and the patronage of the mayor have been extended the result has not been to diminish the force of partisanship in mayoralty elections; on the contrary, party leaders have been impelled to make more energetic campaigns and to perfect their organizations in order that they might control an office which had become the more valuable to them. Furthermore, the election of four or five commissioners by the voters at large would, in all probability, result in selections from the ranks of a single party; the dominant party could in most cases elect its whole slate, and the minority party would in consequence be wholly unrepresented. There might, no doubt, be frequent exceptions to this, but it would be the more usual outcome. On the other hand, a large council, the members of which are elected by small districts, will almost certainly contain representatives of the weaker political party. Much of the hopes placed upon the new system arise from the proposal that commissioners shall be elected at large; but it must not be forgotten that the plan of election at large is not without its counterbalancing defects.

A CHANGE IN THE GOVERNMENT WILL AVAIL LITTLE WITHOUT A CHANGE IN PERSONNEL

It has, perhaps, been characteristic of the American voter that he is prone to lay too much stress upon the form of government and too little upon its personnel. He is not always quick to see that the more efficient administration of European cities results not at all from their superior framework of local government, but from the higher calibre of men who seek and obtain municipal office. Without a change of personnel, the substitution of government by commission for the existing system would assuredly avail but little. Indeed, a corrupt or an inefficient commission with wide powers would be much more capable of injuring the best interests of a city than an equally corrupt or inefficient set of administrative organs with powers and patronage decentralized; for the very complexity and cumbrousness of the present system serves in some degree to place an obstacle in the way of any widespread or consistent wrongdoing. The real question is, therefore, whether a better class of men would be attracted to a small commission than to a large council. To this the lesson of experience seems to give an affirmative reply. But it is a matter of probability rather than a matter of certainty.

Sponsors of the commission plan have sometimes urged that its adoption would ensure administration by skilled experts, since appointments made by a small body would probably be dictated by reasons of merit and experience alone. It may be noted, however, that the vesting of the right of appointment in the hands of a small body, or even in the hands of a single officer would not necessarily ensure this result. There was a time in American cities when patronage was committed to the municipal council, and under this system partisan considerations almost exclusively influenced the making of appointments to office. Municipal reformers insisted that this pernicious policy could be brought to an end only by transferring the appointing power to the mayor and by placing upon the mayor alone the full and entire

responsibility. But during the decade or more since this transfer has been made it may well be doubted whether individual merit and capabilities have counted much more in determining appointments than they did in the days when the council possessed the patronage. Now it is proposed to vest the patronage once again with a body of men; but one may scarcely venture to hope that partisan considerations will lose much of their strength because of any such further transfer. Definite location of responsibility for civic appointments seems, as experience shows, to afford some assurance against gross inefficiency; it does not, apparently, afford a guarantee that the degree of efficiency will be very high.

THE CONCENTRATION OF APPROPRIATING AND EXPENDING POWERS IN THE SAME HANDS.

An important feature of both the Galveston and Des Moines plans of city government by commission is that the "appropriating" and "spending" authorities are fused. In other branches of American government it has been the policy to keep these two jurisdictions distinct and independent; and this has been true alike of national, state, and local administration. The legislative organs appropriate the funds, the administrative organs supervise their expenditure. In the New England system of town government the board of selectmen does not appropriate moneys for any purpose; this function is reserved to the annual "town meeting." The concentration of both powers in the hands of a single small commission might, and probably would, serve the interests of integrity so long as men of the right caliber constituted the commission; but there are those who see in this fusion of jurisdiction a potential element of danger. It involves, at any rate a radical departure from a principle which has hitherto characterized not alone American government, but the governmental systems of the leading European states as well. In the successful administration of German cities, for example, this separation of the appro-

priating from the spending departments has always been strongly emphasized.

THE INCENTIVE TO STATE INTERFERENCE.

It is sometimes urged that the general adoption of the system of government by commission would encourage state intervention in municipal affairs. In every large city there come up, year by year, many important questions which demand broad legislative action. Now, whether their policy has been wise or unwise in this direction, it is an undoubted fact that state authorities have been extremely loath to entrust broad legislative functions to small boards whose jurisdiction is mainly administrative. The association of well-considered legislative action with large bodies is deeply imbedded in the American mind and will not be easily eradicated. If large municipal councils are eliminated from the framework of city government there would seem to be a danger that state legislatures would be tempted to assume for themselves some of the broader legislative functions which the councils have been accustomed to exercise. At any rate, we know from experience that where the legislative powers of municipal councils have been curtailed their former powers have usually been assumed by the state legislature and have not been transferred to some other organ of local government. That there has been, on the whole, too much state interference in municipal affairs most students of government are disposed to admit; this intervention has been on occasions salutary, but more often detrimental to the best interests of the cities concerned. It may properly be urged, therefore, that any step which promises to afford an incentive to greater inroads upon the principle of civic autonomy should not be taken hastily or without due consideration of its less immediate but none the less important consequences.

In weighing the respective merits and defects of the Galveston plan as these would probably work out were the system given general application, the burden of proof ought in fairness to be placed upon those who advocate the

extension. A change in any department of American government which involves a transformation so complete of the whole framework of organization should not be readily adopted until it can be said to promise, with a reasonable degree of certainty, a very decisive improvement in civic administration. It must not be forgotten that the experiment of government by commission has as yet been adequately tried in Galveston alone, and that here the circumstances were distinctly unusual. A receivership may be the best means of getting a bankrupt business corporation upon its financial feet, but it does not follow that all sound and solvent concerns should forthwith permanently adopt this method of administering their affairs.

On the other hand, as the present system of civic administration is too complicated, and too cursed with the curse of divided responsibility to prove reasonably efficient, any step in the direction of simplification should be welcomed by those who have the best interests of American cities at heart. Those who are prone to look askance at anything which involves concentration of power may be reminded that such is never dangerous when accompanied by an equal concentration of responsibility. Not a few American cities at the present time are, as every one knows, controlled by small coteries of men—party managers—who dominate the official organs. These men are dangerous because they concentrate power without responsibility. The system of government by commission, if it would not eliminate the "bosses," promises at any rate to compel them to work in the open.

Experiment with the Galveston plan in a number of cities differing in size and situated in different parts of the country, will serve to mark out more clearly the merits and defects of the system in action. The plan can be said to have established a *prima facie* case; and it well deserves a sympathetic trial on a sufficiently broad scale to enable it to be fairly judged.

Newport Plan of City Government

By Rear Admiral F. E. Chadwick, U. S. N., Retired
Newport, Rhode Island.

THE foreign cities of Budapest, Cologne, Berlin, Leipzig, Frankfort, Paris, Glasgow, and even much of London to name only a few, are practically the work of the last thirty or forty years. A hundred years ago the joint population of the two towns now called Budapest was but about 50,000, it is now well on to a million. Berlin had about 500,000 in 1860 and has now about 2,300,000. The London County Council has an oversight of a population of well on to seven millions, or about twice as many as the then district of London comprised thirty years ago. And while the greater European cities have swollen with a rapidity in some cases surpassing any of our own, and in very many cases equalling the growth of ours, the changes have not been confined to the newer parts. Vast districts of London have been rebuilt. Thirty years ago it was, except in a few districts, a great shabby, gloomy, aggregation of houses, the chief impression of which was of grime and squalor. Brilliant avenues now run where formerly and but lately stood acres of unsightliness. Old streets have been built anew, and scores of square miles of modern construction added until the London of today is the most impressive and most grandiose city of the world. And this is the work of the last thirty to forty years. We all know that Paris, as we now see it, dates from the last Napoleon.

The nineteenth century city of America is thus really in competition with the city of like modernity in Europe; if we have failed to do as well in city design, architecture or administration, the fault is not in our newness. In fact we had in our country a hundred and more years ago in Washington a design for a city which has never been surpassed, and no municipality, though we have now more than a hundred towns of over 40,000 people, has had intelligence

enough to copy it. We have never been able to rise above that most stupid of city forms, the purely rectangular system of streets, a system the most wasteful in transportation, the least convenient, the least decorative. Its inefficiency and waste of time, and wear of motive power and vehicles can be measured exactly, being in the relation of the hypothenuse and the other two sides of the right angled triangle. It is certainly very odd that we should never have freed ourselves from this essentially stupid checkerboard design, unrelieved by the simple device of diagonals which make Washington so convenient and beautiful.

AMERICAN FAILURE.

All this failure is due, with so much else, to unintelligence in our city government. Why have we failed where Europe has, in so much greater a degree, succeeded? In my view, the main cause has been in placing city administration, business of the greatest technicality and difficulty, in the hands of short term and accidental men. Associated with this unwisdom has been the equally unwise course of adopting for cities, our state and federal forms of a president and a lower and an upper house, but putting aside their great and distinguishing characteristic not only in state and federal usage, but in town meetings as well, viz.: the separation of the appropriating and spending powers. Our city councils as a rule combine these, thus traversing a principle which it took centuries of struggle to establish, and which today rules in every civilized government. Our city procedure in this is of a sort to make one doubt the existence of such a thing as logic in the mental make-up of our people. The whole evolution of government has been toward the separation mentioned. It would seem that nothing is more fully established as a great fundamental principle than that the same men cannot with safety be allowed to lay the taxes, make the appropriations, and spend the money. Our city charters in running directly in face of this principle cause us to reap the necessary results of its violation.

PERMANENCY OF OFFICE.

Touching the question of permanency of office: it is equally extraordinary that a people of our undoubted business ability, should have regarded, throughout our municipal history, the administration of cities as a by-play for men most of whom are already overburdened with business cares. They were to do the work of administration in many cases for nothing, and where paid the compensation is so meager that it is a mere honorarium rather than a salary commensurate with the work done or expected to be done. The city of Boston which expends $40,000,000 a year pays its chief executive $10,000; its city engineer $6,000. Rochester with an expenditure of nearly $4,000,000 pays its mayor $5,000 and its engineer $4,500. Cincinnati expends nearly $10,000,000, pays the mayor $6,000, and the chief city engineer the same. St. Louis expending nearly $18,000,000, pays the mayor $5,000 and the city engineer and the street commissioner $4,000 each. These are taken as representative salaries of the larger places.

Men must be paid either in honor or money, or somewhat in both, and in addition they must, if of position and character, feel that they are not temporary stop gaps. As we well know, the honor connected with municipal office is unfortunately not reckoned now at a high figure. In many cases municipal office is allied with an impression of disreputability. When things become so rotten (the only word really applicable) as to suggest that the holding of public office is disreputable, it is time for a community to sit up and think with all the vigor of which it is capable.

The business of the modern city is too great to expect in this commercial country that good men will be found of such altruism as to devote, without adequate payment and security of tenure, their whole time to the public good. If we are to improve, we must necessarily turn to business methods something like the British, German, and other advanced European systems which involve the desiderata I

have mentioned, viz., honor and adequate emolument, as well as permanency.

There is no difficulty in getting honesty, zeal and fair ability in any walk of life in which there is a living wage combined with position made secure so long as the tenant is zealous and upright. I would instance the profession to which I have had the honor to belong for forty-six years. The monetary reward, is from the Wall street or general business point of view but slight. But every officer in the service knows, so long as he does his duty, that this wage is sure. He is not born more honest than other men, but he is reared in an atmosphere of honesty, which though it has become a deep rooted principle and sentiment of honor, is bolstered by the fact that every sentiment of self interest demands that he shall be honest. The Federal government gets excellent and honest service from its many thousand officials of the civil service for the same reasons, and you will have the same sentiment grow up among city administrators, given like conditions.

A vital point is thus to stop putting into city administration haphazard, ephemeral, and untrained men. They must be trained and must be practically permanent.

THE GERMAN MAYOR.

The German system usually makes the appointment one of twelve years, it always being understood that the appointment is renewable if satisfaction be given. The mayor or burgermeister is elected for his ability without regard to his habitat. He may, if he acquires a reputation, be called from place to place. He is in fact an employe. The British mayor is entirely different. He is not an administrator at all. He is merely ornamental, except that for his year of incumbency he is the presiding officer of the council; at the end of his year he resumes his seat in the council. I would also mention here that an alderman in England is merely one of the eldermen of the council, elected for six years from the council itself, but continuing the same general duties of a councilman; the councilors and aldermen

though divided into a number of superintending committees, sit as one body. The administration of the English town is practically in the hands of a body of permanent experts appointed by the council, much as in Germany. The council is supervisory, much as in the latter country.

When we consider the enormous and complicated business involved in the administration of a great city, the idea of putting into the offices of administration, men of a day, with no experience of administration, with no idea of seeking office but for party purposes, or for the moderate income attached is not sanity. In fact it is public insanity, and the sooner we pull out of such a custom the better for our reputation, for our character, for the safety of our institutions, and for our pockets. Our great cities spend as much as many nationalities: Their employes are reckoned by the thousand. New York's police force is about equal in number to nine regiments of 1,000 men each; the number of police in the fifteen largest cities is over 23,000; more by 7,000 than the whole of the United States Army at the outbreak of the Civil War. Boston has upon its pay rolls a total of about 12,000 men. The absurdity of entrusting such vast business to raw men needs no comment. The only thing one can say is why do we do it?

Ability and training are thus necessary as well as character. The two first are naturally the product of time; in other words of experience. I would thus suggest the appointment or election, by whatever method should finally be thought best, of the mayor, an assistant mayor, and of all heads of administrative departments for not less than ten years. Over these men should be a large council, large enough to be fairly representative. There is no reason why, so far as manageability is concerned, it should not be as large as the Congress of the United States, which after all is not larger than a fully attended town meeting of a town of 1,500 inhabitants. This council should have full control of all legislative business; no member of the council should have any administrative functions.

THE REPRESENTATIVE COUNCIL.

In our Newport system, we have a body of 195 known as the representative council elected for three years in whose hands are all legislative powers, and a board consisting of a mayor and five aldermen elected for one year, as executives. The representative council broadly speaking has the powers of a town meeting, and the board of aldermen of which the mayor is a member and also presiding officer, the powers of selectmen. The number 195 was fixed upon as large enough to be fully representative of the people, but too large for effective control in meeting, and also as being the multiple of 13 and 39, the latter being the number elected for each ward, one-third renewable yearly. The representative council is elected by wards, only those voting who pay a property tax on not less than $134, this being a proviso of the Rhode Island Constitution in reference to such bodies. The aldermen are nominated by wards but are elected by the city tax paying vote. The mayor is voted for by the whole electorate. I would add that the Rhode Island rule disqualifies about 1,400 of the total 5,400 Newport electors for voting for the council or for any proposition to impose a tax or spend money.

The representative council has its first meeting on the first Monday in January, elects a chairman, a large number of city officers, does a large amount of other business, and adjourns to await a call to consider the budget. This is reported by a committee of twenty-five of the council, five from each ward, appointed by the chairman. The report of this committee must be printed and distributed to all tax paying voters at least a week before the adjourned meeting called to consider it. I would say that this procedure is taken from that of Brookline, to one of whose citizens, Mr. Alfred D. Chandler, we also owe the suggestion of a large council with town meeting powers. I would call special attention to this budget committee. It is large enough to be fully representative; its action is open and above board; its findings are known before they are finally passed upon.

The referendum and initiative in money propositions are made easy; the council itself can be called together at any time upon the written request of twenty-five of its members, or upon the request of the board of aldermen; the meetings must be with open doors, and its records open to public inspection; it elects the city officials, fixes their salaries and defines their duties; it may by vote of two-thirds of all the members, remove an officer for misconduct or incapacity. Any tax payer, man or woman, may appear before the council and address it, subject of course to necessary rules.

The mayor has power to suspend any city official and bring the case before the whole board of aldermen. If the board sustain the charges, the official is dismissed. The official has, however, ten days in which he may make appeal to the representative council whose action is final. The board of aldermen forms the several committees for the supervision of the administration of the city departments; it reports their condition with recommendations annually; it also attends the meetings of the council and gives such information as may be required. The mayor and aldermen receive salaries fixed by the council, the members of the council receive none. These are now, for the mayor $1,200; the aldermen $900. These officials may not be interested in any city contract nor may any of them, stockholders in a corporation, vote upon a proposition or with reference to a contract between the city and such corporation.

SEPARATION OF ELECTION.

The election in order to separate it from party elections, is fixed for the first Monday in December; nomination papers are filed with the city clerk at least twelve days before this date; all candidates must give a written acceptance of candidacy; thirty signatures at least of tax paying voters in the ward are necessary to nominate for the representative council; one hundred of the general electorate, to nominate for the School Committee; and two hundred and fifty of the general electorate, to nominate for mayor. No

one can sign the papers of more persons than he is allowed to vote for. Though the aldermen must be residents of the wards for which they stand, they are voted for by the whole of the tax paying voters of the city. Nothing of a political nature can appear upon the nomination paper or ballots.

EXTREME SIMPLICITY.

It will be seen that the system developed in this charter is one of extreme simplicity. It unites all legislative power in a single body, and establishes a small committee to carry the authority of this body into effect; it brings back to the people in a very effective degree the authority which has been taken from them by political rings and combines; it separates the municipal from state and national elections; it separates the power authorizing the spending of money from the power which expends, thus vastly increasing the difficulty of a vicious combine. In the words of the "Explanatory Statement" which accompanied the act when brought before the legislature, it "is absolutely open to the knowledge of all the people; gives the right to every one to speak upon any proposition; allows no opportunity to stifle any question; makes it easy for any one to bring forward any subjects for consideration; opens the budget to full inspection and discussion by the people before it is adopted; in a word, makes the public the master it should be in all questions affecting its civic welfare." Its one defect so far as I can see is in its short terms for the executives and technical staff.

I would desire to say, with all possible emphasis, that the Galveston system appears to be a step backward to the dark ages of government. Its general adoption would be a move to an entire disruption of our American policy. More and more does experience show the necessity of incessant oversight and criticism of boards. The whole country has rung with the subject for the two years past.

THE GALVESTON SYSTEM.

The Galveston system is not only the complete negation of the great principle of the separation of the appro-

priating and spending powers, but it is the removal from the people of the duties of citizenship which every man should share to the fullest degree for which we can arrange. If these duties be ignored; if they be nullified as in Galveston, what becomes of the only just and logical basis of our school system? No man has claim to ask that his children be educated by the states unless this education be regarded as a preparation for taking an interest in public affairs. And how can any sound-thinking community ignore the educational effects arising from the interest in civic affairs which can only come from an actual taking part in such affairs?

If we are to preserve our governmental system, it is impossible for us to ignore the educational effect on the people of an active and constant participation in their public affairs. This is the very life blood of popular government. Never was it more necessary for us to hold firmly to this great principle. We are adding to our population a million foreigners a year, a vast majority of whom are a peasantry subordinate to leaders by long centuries of habit, wholly alien to the ideals of government which have come to us from our Teutonic forbears, and with no sense of responsibility for our public life. We are rapidly filling our great cities with men whose only idea of government is to be governed. It is a time when we should cling with all the force that is in us to our ancient principles. Des Moines does somewhat better than Galveston. She gives a broad referendum and initiative, but it is easy to see that the difficulty and expense of a frequent reference to the whole electorate of a large city will go far to nullify the plan. I think that it will not, in this respect, bear comparison with the Newport system. In one case the system is cumbersome, difficult of full and reasonable discussion, and expensive; in the other there is primarily full discussion by a large select body, which may end the matter, with no expense; or if it goes to the people it does so with a full understanding on their part of all the arguments. It seems to me that there can be no question as to which system will give the sounder results.

The grave question we are facing in advocating such a system as that of Galveston is whether we are preparing to cut adrift from our ancient ways and return to personal government. For more than two hundred years the dominating idea in America has been the principles represented by the New England town meeting, and which in essentials is the principle of the referendum in its fullest development. We failed unhappily to extend it to our state and federal systems as England has done in her appeal by the dissolution of parliament. Any step away from this constant touch with the people is a step backward and toward evils from which society took hundreds of years to escape. Our greatest problem is to give the people full opportunity to express their will, of which now they have so little chance, and the want of which makes so often our state and national legislature anything but truly representative. For there is no true ideal of government which does not include a reasonably quick response to the popular will.

No man can consider the possibilities involved in a general acceptance by towns of such a system as that of Galveston, which is clearly to my mind a step towards the despotizing of our institutions, without calling a halt to take thought. There is in the air a growing idea that a strong man government is a desideratum. If the Galveston system is good for a great city, why is it not good for one of our states some of which have less population by far than some of our great towns? Shall we have it in the states and not at Washington? Why not do away with legislatures and congress and elect governors and a council and a president and a cabinet and let them have the law making power, the taxing power, the appropriative power as well as the administrative power? There would certainly be no difference in principle from that at Galveston; why should there be any in the working?

I believe that in Newport we have the better way. Our representative council is our congress; our mayor and aldermen are our president and cabinet. They are analogues

of that which obtains throughout our state systems, with the added benefit of closer touch with the whole people through our initiative and referendum. The system has eliminated politics, has worked admirably thus far, and bids fair to continue so. It is not in effect unlike Washington, whose commission works under Congress; nor unlike Toronto which has an elective "board of control" of four men who act as administrators under a board of eighteen aldermen. But in Newport we are greatly more in touch with the people, the vast majority of whom, everywhere in my belief, wish decent government. Were it otherwise, the world would be in continuous retrograde.

I disagree with the distinguished president of one of our universities whose idea apparently is merely as he himself phrased it at Salem, "to get better men, really able men, true men of both capacities and character, to take in hand the conduct of city business on business principles."

MAN, NOT MEN.

I believe in man, not in individual men. The latter may be well enough for great emergencies, but at bottom, it is a question, in the long run, of reliance on the whole community. Our main need is a reasonable system which shall induce talent, reward ability and character, and give permanency of situation to men of such type. Such men will appear the instant we offer such a goal to them. They exist in Great Britain, they exist in a very marked degree in Germany, and if we offer anything like the same reasonable conditions they will exist here. Human nature is the same everywhere. We have simply been cultivating in our city government, by our ill devised systems, the worser sides of this nature.

But joined with this better class of administrators, such as we know by the experience of other nations a wise treatment of the subject will produce, must be that representation of the people which shall keep the latter in touch with their affairs and afford that supervision without which all close boards will sooner or later go astray.

Digest of the Des Moines Charter

Under the charter the entire affairs of the city of Des Moines are conducted by a mayor and four councilmen, all elected at large, without regard to ward or other sectional lines, and, what is more important, without regard to party lines. A primary election was held in the city in February to select candidates for the five offices, and an election at which the voters made a choice between the candidates selected at the primaries was held in March. At neither the primary nor final election, however, was there anything on the tickets to indicate what ward or section any candidate came from, or of what party he was a member. The non-partisan election is probably the most unique feature of the Des Moines character, whether it is most important or not. The primary election is held the second Monday preceding the general municipal election. Any citizen who desires to be a candidate for the office of either mayor or councilman files a petition signed by not less than twenty-five legal voters ten days before the primary, stating the office for which he desires nomination. There is only one ticket in either the primary or general election. In the primaries the names of all the candidates are arranged, alphabetically, under the name of the office for which they are candidates. A Des Moines primary ballot looks something like this:

[Place a cross in the square preceding the names of the parties you favor as candidates for the respective positions.]

CANDIDATES FOR NOMINATION FOR MAYOR AND COUNCILMEN OF DES MOINES CITY AT THE PRIMARY ELECTION.

For Mayor. (Vote for one.)	For Councilmen. (Vote for four.)
——James Atkins.	——Stephen Hillman.
——Peter Bailey.	——Robert Mills.
——Thomas Caldwell.	——William Nillson.
——Nathaniel Wilkins.	——Henry Osborn.
	——Thomas Richards.
	——Albert Thomas.

The two mayoralty candidates and the eight councilmanic candidates receiving the highest number of votes

become the official nominees, and their names, and no other names, are printed on the ballot at the general election, in the same way as at the primary elections, the voters at the general election choosing between the two mayoralty nominees, and voting for any four of the eight councilmanic nominees. This plan is expected to discourage any attempt to manipulate the primaries in the interest of any candidates or set of candidates.

Under the charter the mayor and all the councilmen are elected for two years. Under the recall, which is a feature of the charter, a special election to unelect any one of these five officials must be held at any time it is demanded by a petition of twenty-five per cent. of the number of voters who voted for mayor at the last election. The same method of nominating and electing as in the regular election is to prevail in a special recall election, excepting that the official whose recall, or removal from office, is demanded shall have his name printed on the primary ballots without petition, unless he asks that it be left off. In case of a vacancy arising because of death or resignation, the remaining members make an appointment to fill the vacancy. The mayor and four councilmen thus elected are to govern the city. The mayor is chairman of the council, but has no veto power, although he or two of the councilmen must sign any resolution or ordinance before it becomes effective. The executive and administrative powers, authority, and duties in the government are distributed among five departments. These are the departments of public affairs, accounts and finances, public safety, streets and public improvements, and parks and public property. In Des Moines the council is to take over and distribute among these five departments all the powers and duties now held or performed by the mayor, city council, board of public works, park commissioners, board of police and fire commissioners, board of water works trustees, board of library trustees, solicitor, assessor, treasurer, auditor,

city engineer, and other boards and officers. Under the charter, the mayor is made the head of the department of public affairs. Each councilman is assigned to the chairmanship of one of the other four departments, the assignments being made by the majority vote of the council. The mayor has a vote in the council. All the offices are filled by appointment by a majority vote of the council, and the council prescribes the powers, duties, and authority of each department and department head. Any officer or assistant named by the council may be removed from office at any time by a majority vote.

The salary of the mayor of Des Moines, under the new charter, will be $3,500 a year, and the councilmen will receive $3,000 a year each. No franchise grant of any kind made by the council is to be effective until it has been approved by a majority vote of the voters of the city at a special election. All the ordinances, excepting those of an emergency nature, which must receive a two-thirds vote in the council, are subject to a popular protest and referendum. Such ordinances are not to go into effect until ten days after their passage. If, within such ten days, a protest and demand for a referendum vote is filed by twenty-five per cent. of the voters the question of its adoption is referred to a special election. A majority vote against the measure in such an election acts as a veto. If twenty-five per cent. of the voters of the city petition for the passage of any resolution or ordinance, and the council fails or refuses to pass such a measure in the form it is presented, within twenty days after the filing of the petition, the question of its adoption must be referred to a popular vote at a special election called on ninety days' notice. If, at such election, the measure petitioned for receives a majority vote in its favor, it becomes effective without further action by the council.—*From the New Jersey Law Journal.*

The Des Moines Plan

By Silas B. Allen

President of the Des Moines, Iowa, Commercial Club.

THE Des Moines plan of city government has abolished wards, boards, and the aldermanic system. It has concentrated the executive, administrative, legislative and judicial work of the city in one body of men. The executive and administrative affairs are the principal duties to be performed, the others are incidental; and this body of councilmen, in whom all of this power is concentrated, represents the entire people and no particular division. They act collectively in counseling the welfare of the city, in executing its laws and administering its affairs in accordance with the best judgment of the majority of their number.

Thus at one stroke, the ward system is abolished, the possibility of each ward being a law unto itself is prevented, and the distribution of the city's funds among the respective wards to satisfy the aldermen and their constituency is made a thing of the past; the executive power has been concentrated, and the entire responsibility fixed in a definite body; harmony and coöperation are made necessary, and each member of the council is responsible for the condition of the whole city. They must so demean themselves that the citizens will be satisfied, both with the amount of money used by them, and what they accomplish.

The citizens are made the judges of the efficiency of the officers under the Des Moines Plan, for through the medium of the newspapers, they are to be furnished with the facts concerning the things done by this body of men. After the individual has secured the office, he is constantly reminded that the people have reserved the right to recall him if he violates any of the duties entrusted to him. This will undoubtedly act as a restraint, but if he should be so bold as to defy the will of the people by attempting to pass

an ordinance against their interests, or seeks to execute the law in a different way from what he should, or if he seeks to establish rules of his own contrary to the law, a protest will stop the enactment of the ordinance instanter. His right to hold office, as well as the law or ordinance attempted to be enacted, will be submitted to the people who have the right to act as arbiters of the whole matter, and may enact the ordinance or veto it, and remove the offender from office if they so desire.

The veto power, therefore, is retained by the citizens and the recall is an impeachment process reserved by them. The initiative and referendum are akin to those provisions, further curtailing the powers of the officials. The people can take the initiative and cause to be submitted to the vote of the people, any provision they desire adopted, and their determination of the question is final. It will be observed that the Des Moines Plan provides for officers to execute and administer the laws of the city, and enact such ordinances as are essential to its welfare, but the people reserve the right to accept or reject any of the propositions, thus preventing any arbitrary act of the council in defiance of the will of the people.

The Des Moines Plan has not only brought city officers closer to the people, but it has removed inducements that heretofore have been great temptations to the officials of the city. Franchises are no longer an inducement to any particular candidate in his effort to secure office, or a temptation for graft after he is in. The people have reserved the right to grant or refuse the franchise.

The provision that every franchise be submitted to a vote of the people and a majority of their number be found in its favor before the transfer can become effective is of inestimable advantage. A public utility corporation can buy aldermen, it might buy a mayor, and it might even buy a commissioner; for whatever the character of his office, or its name, it does not change the man. But it cannot buy the people of the city. The people are not grafters. Officials

do not bribe themselves; they are bribed by those who need their services.

Under the Des Moines Plan the clerical force and laboring class of people are safely sheltered by the merit system, and are entirely removed from politics. The merit of the employe is to be determined according to his ability to perform the duties assigned him. He does not have to become a good politician before he can become an employe of the city. Employes are protected, furthermore, by penalties provided in the Des Moines Plan that may be invoked by any citizen, causing the offender to lose his office.

The Des Moines Plan of city government, therefore, facilitates securing good men to subserve the best interests of the people of the city, for a majority of the people determine who shall be their representative in office in every instance. The sifting process in the primary election is unique, and let us hope that it will be efficient. The Des Moines Plan has centered the work of the city in a deliberative body of men, who confer on all propositions, and for convenience in administering the city's affairs, the business is divided into the following departments: department of public affairs; department of accounts and finances; department of public safety; department of public improvements; department of parks and public property.

The mayor is the head of the department of public affairs, and is required to supervise all departments, and report all matters pertaining to the city's affairs to the council when in session. He has no veto power; this is reserved to the people. Each of the other councilmen is placed at the head of one of the departments. With the removal of the greater temptations, and with the restraints thrown about the officers to remind them of their obligations to the people and the other advantages discussed, we believe that a step has been made in advance of any municipal form of government heretofore devised.

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THE GRADUATING CLASS.

As the summer draws near individual readers from many parts of the country are giving definite shape to their plans for the graduation of the Class of 1908. From Parma, Idaho, a circle writes for copies of the 1908 Recognition Service. At Kokomo, Indiana, a new Chautauqua is to be held in the beautiful city park and nine members of the class will receive their diplomas. Circles at Urbana and Champaign, Illinois, are arranging for Class Day Exercises. Many of the Assemblies make Recognition Day a very prominent feature of the program and neighboring Chautauqua Circles lend their hearty coöperation.

The class banner, which is in the hands of a competent committee, promises to be a very artistic standard and its unveiling at Chautauqua will be one of the most interesting features of this graduating year. A photograph of it is promised for the July Round Table. Members who have found so much pleasure in the study of "Rational Living" will learn with interest that its author, President Henry C. King of Oberlin, will give the Recognition Day address at Chautauqua. Many letters from individual readers show how loyally they cherish the class spirit. One of two, a minister, writes from Ohio:

Rebuilding the Venetian Campanile. Its present progress.

The Campanile as it stood in St. Mark's Square, Venice.

D. W. Howell, General Secretary of the C. L. S. C.

"I have followed the reading course for the past four years with a great deal of pleasure and profit. I had thought it possible to be at Chautauqua this summer but shall be unable to carry out my plans in this respect. I do not know anyone of my class, having pursued my course by myself." A New York State member gives her experience as follows:

"My interest and zeal in the Chautauqua Reading Course has not abated in the least. Indeed the zest for it grows with each succeeding year and although this year finishes my four years' course, I have no intention of stopping with that, but am looking forward to many years of interesting Chautauqua work. I am a solitary reader and have not had the inspiration and pleasure that a Circle gives, but it has been the most helpful and interesting reading I have done since I left college. It has not been my good fortune to visit Chautauqua for a good many years, but I hope to be able to identify myself with my class on Recognition Day. I am growing more enthusiastic over the Chautauqua idea all the while."

JAMES MCNEIL WHISTLER'S PORTRAIT OF HIS MOTHER

Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle: Certificate for completion of the course for 1907-08

Class _____ Chancellor

There are hundreds of members whose thoughts will turn to Chautauqua on Recognition Day, though they will not be able to meet with their classmates either there or elsewhere. Some of them are far distant in foreign lands, but the spirit of '08 animates them all—"to strive, to seek, to find and not to yield."

REBUILDING THE VENETIAN CAMPANILE.

The fall of the Campanile at Venice was felt as a distinct loss by many people who had never seen the original but had enjoyed through photographs all the charm of its exquisite proportions. Professor Kuhns in his "Gondola-ride through Venice" which formed a feature of one of THE CHAUTAUQUAN Reading Journeys a few years ago, gave us the accompanying view of the Campanile as it then stood in St. Mark's Square. Side by side with this our readers will be glad to see the new Campanile as it is slowly taking on the proportions of the earlier one. The original design is being faithfully followed and in due time Venice will come into her own once more.

THE NEW GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE C. L. S. C.

The recent appointment of Rev. D. W. Howell of Hartford, Conn., as General Secretary of the C. L. S. C. is an important step in the educational work of Chautauqua. Mr. Howell's successful management of the Connecticut Chautauqua Assembly, and his lectures and addresses for two years past at other Chautauquas have shown his ability to present effectively the work of the C. L. S. C. He is convinced that the work of the reading circle can be brought home to thousands who are at present quite unconscious of its benefits and the remarkable results secured by local workers in Connecticut and other states seem to confirm this view. Mr. Howell has been a great favorite in his several fields of work as a Methodist pastor. The members

of his church at Hartford, Conn., which he leaves to take up the work of the C. L. S. C. look upon his departure with the deepest regret.

Chautauqua is to be congratulated upon this new addition to its working staff.

Since his appointment as General Secretary on the first of April Mr. Howell has been developing plans, making public addresses, visiting conferences, and other educational centers. During the late summer and fall he will be in the field constantly, helping to organize local groups of readers at the assemblies and elsewhere for coöperation in the extension of the work of the C. L. S. C. He will be glad to make the acquaintance of circles and readers in every part of his wide territory so that he may become personally familiar, so far as possible, with the entire field. Mr. Howell should be addressed at Chautauqua, New York.

RECOGNITION OF A YEAR'S READING.

One of the most famous pictures discussed in our studies of American Painting this year is Whistler's portrait of his mother. It has met with such evident appreciation from our readers that arrangements have been made to reproduce it for our annual certificate. The certificate is about eight by twelve inches in size, making the picture itself large enough to be framed very effectively. It is the privilege of every member who has read the course for the past year to secure a copy of this certificate. Every subscriber to THE CHAUTAUQUAN is a member of the C. L. S. C. and every non-subscriber who is reading the course may be enrolled as a member upon payment of one dollar. All such members are entitled to the duplicate memoranda pamphlet which can be secured by sending a postal to Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, New York, giving full address and the class to which the reader belongs. On the first page of this pamphlet will be found a form of application for the Certificate, which may be filled out and sent in irrespective of the answers to review questions.

Many readers will find pleasure in rounding up the year's reading by answering the review questions. As they progress with the four years' course they realize more and more the genuine educational value of this "college outlook." Five seals on the diploma at graduation will be pleasant to contemplate. They signify one seal each year for the white seal paper and one additional seal for the four brief memoranda filled out during the four years. Such graduates become members of the Order of the White Seal, the first of the "Higher Orders" of the C. L. S. C.

TOPICS FOR NEXT YEAR.

A copy of the "Topical Outline" of the C. L. S. C. Course for the Modern European Year has been sent to every Chautauqua circle. Any circle which has failed to receive it and any individual reader who would like this advance circular can secure it by sending to the office at Chautauqua. The circular gives the general order of reading for the year with the chapter titles of books and magazine series, so that the reader may have a very definite idea of the nature of the subjects to be studied next year. A very carefully selected bibliography is also included and members will do well to submit the list to the librarians of their local libraries.

In the Topical Outline under March: "Second Week" read Zola's "The Dream" followed by Rostand's "Cryano de Bergerac." A slight change in the order of the chapters will place Maeterlinck before Hauptmann.

Review questions similar to those upon other C. L. S. C. books were not prepared upon Provincial Types in American Fiction. Instead a set of "suggestive" questions was published in the circle programs on page 309 of the April CHAUTAUQUAN. The stories discussed in the book can readily be reviewed by means of the questions on "The Setting" and "The Author." Readers who want to go more deeply into the subject will find a chance for study and reflection in the questions entitled "The Plot."

CLASS REUNIONS.

This year promises to be a notable one for class reunions at Chautauqua. The dedication of tablets in the new Hall of Philosophy appeals to the imagination of every lover of the beautiful Hall and the example set by the Class of '82 last year is likely to be followed this summer by a number of others. The Vincent Class celebrates its twenty-fifth anniversary. '83 has never had the large attendance characteristic of its neighbors, "The Pioneers," of '82, but as a class it has always been noted for certain original and executive qualities which count for a great deal. The members want to dedicate their tablet in the Hall of Philosophy this year so that there may be not even a temporary break in the succession of twenty-five year old class records, and they want to join hands at Chautauqua with every '83 who can make it possible to come. All members are invited to write at once a word of greeting to the Secretary and to give her the present addresses of all '83's whom they chance to know. This will help greatly in promoting class enthusiasm. The address of the secretary is Miss Ann C. Hitchcock, Burton, Ohio.

The triennial of 1905 promises to be a gala occasion. The dedication of the class tablet in the Hall of Philosophy will act as a sort of magnet to give special significance to this reunion for the class showed much enthusiasm over this project some years ago. The Secretary writes, "We are contemplating not a few unique social functions and expect to be just as proud and happy as we were the year we graduated." For many members who were not able to be at Chautauqua in 1905 this triennial reunion will be a great opportunity. None will need to be urged to attend.

Many members of the Class of '98 who have not been to Chautauqua since their graduation ten years ago will find especial pleasure in noting the improvements in the class headquarters and in greeting members whom they met at graduation. Some of the Class last year started a small

decennial fund with the idea that they could make some contribution to the upbuilding of their Alma Mater. Perhaps no better use could be made of such a fund than to secure their '98 class tablet and have it placed in the Hall of Philosophy. Every such tablet is a distinct addition to the harmonious effect of the building and the small sum of one hundred dollars makes it possible.

SHALL CIRCLES FEDERATE?

Chautauqua Circles are occasionally puzzled as to their proper relation to other clubs. Shall they join city and state federations of women's clubs? Experience seems to prove the wisdom of answering the question in two ways. If the Circle is a woman's club already and is likely to remain so, then by all means let it join the federation. Every member will be the gainer by such a relation and the Circle in its turn will be able to remind other clubs of the educational facilities which Chautauqua brings within the reach of even the busiest of women. The women's clubs and the Chautauqua Circles should join hands in educational and civic service to their communities. On the other hand, if the Circle is a men's and women's club and joining the federation means eliminating the men, then the Circle would better cling to its birthright of coeducation.

A CHAUTAUQUA IN THE PHILIPPINES.

It follows as a matter of course when the United States is helping to shape ideals of education in the Philippines that a Chautauqua Assembly should spring up quite spontaneously. In April the first Philippine Chautauqua was held on the Island of Luzon at Baguio about two hundred miles north of Manila. This was a gathering chiefly of teachers. Full reports of the Assembly have not yet been received but it was expected that teachers from all over the Orient including Japan, China, and India would be in attendance.

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

The warm June weather naturally led up to Recognition Day reminiscences as the delegates to the Round Table greeted the coming graduates of 1908. "How well I recall," said a member of the Class of '90, "the graduation of our class. It was the first time that the Recognition Day address at Chautauqua had been given by a woman. I'm sure none of us who were there have forgotten how the magnetic power of the gifted speaker, Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer, held her audience. There was no suggestion of oratory, no labored attempt to make an impression, but in what seemed a quiet conversational manner, she made it evident to her great audience that 'Education is Life.'"

Pendragon selected from several books on the table a plainly bound voume with the words "Alice Freeman Palmer" stamped in gold on the cover. "This is an opportune time," he said, "to call your attention to this recent life of Mrs. Palmer by her husband, Professor George H. Palmer of Harvard. He is himself a writer of rare charm and his analysis of the life and character of Mrs. Palmer makes an inspiring book. There is nothing more stimulating than a biography of a great life interpreted by one who can do so with sympathy and discrimination. There is another most important and quite recent book which you must all read, which can hardly be estimated too highly. It is 'Universal Elements of the Christian Religion' by the late President Charles Cuthbert Hall. One competent critic says it is fifty years ahead of the times, but everyone who reads it will certainly be ready to help shorten the fifty years as much as possible. Dr. Hall's acquaintance with the Orient was remarkable, beginning with his first trip to India where he gave the Haskell lectures on Christianity. His profound analysis of the Oriental point of view, and his penetrating study of Christianity in its relation to other religions, reveals a sort of prophetic quality in his work. The book has that large outlook which the title indicates. It is a wonderful presentation of the historical evolution of Christianity with an equally illuminating forecast of its mission to all 'kindreds and nations and peoples and tongues.' With characteristic tact he points out some of the limitations of our western thinking and suggests the share which oriental nations must be expected to contribute to a world religion."

"Make sure of these two books for your summer reading then you can add chapters from 'The Gentle Reader' by our American essayist, Mr. Crothers, whose humor is worthy of our best English traditions. And if you don't know Agnes Repplier's charming

essays, you ought, as an American, to make their acquaintance. Her books have titles somewhat suggestive of their contents: 'Points of View,' 'Books and Men,' 'In the Dozy Hours.' Those of you who enjoyed 'Joseph Vance' and 'Alice-for-short' last year will find that Mr. Morgan has not let down his standard in the least in his last volume, 'Somehow Good.'

"I believe," he continued, "that our circles have gained a great deal from the work of this year. It is especially to be expected in an American year, but reports show an eagerness to look at things from many sides, which gives great educational value to our study. You'll be interested in this note from one of our Alabama members born in Reconstruction days, who says: 'That Civil War ought never to have been and if only a little of Miss Addams' "Newer Ideals of Peace" could have been put into public sentiment at that time it would not have been.'" "This clipping," Pendragon continued, "is from *The Chautauquan Weekly* to which the A. M. Martin Circle of Chautauqua, N. Y., sends reports of its meetings. It is the opinion of the writer of this report that nothing in the past two years' reading has produced such spirited discussions in the circles as this book of Miss Addams'. One enthusiastic member was banteringly asked if he gave unqualified assent to everything between the covers of the book. He answered, 'No, but the main drift of it never fails to carry me with it.' This seems to have been the general verdict of the circle."

"What with Sociology and Literature and Painting," remarked a member of the Melioro Circle of Jamestown, New York, "we find America an interesting place. We've supplemented the course with many very illuminating side lights, papers on Woman's Suffrage in Finland, and on various aspects of the labor problem. We secured portraits of some of our distinguished artists and all the reproductions of their works that we could find. It has been a great year for us." "I learn," said Pendragon, "that our book on 'Races and Immigrants in America,' after being studied seriously has lent itself to pictorial representation by some of the circles, among them the Humboldt, Iowa, Chautauquans, whose delegate is here."

"Our circle works hard, I can assure you," remarked the delegate, "but nothing seems to clinch impressions so firmly as occasional dramatic expressions of our ideas. English life and literature have held a new charm for us since we gave 'Cranford' last year and our immigrant party at the holidays has added immensely to our neighborly feeling for our foreign brothers and sisters! On

this occasion a private house represented Uncle Sam's dominions and the newly arrived immigrants were 'inspected' by the host, who was imposing in blue uniform and brass buttons and plenty of medals. Physical and educational tests were made, to the edification of those who had arrived earlier and finally the successful ones were allowed to enter the parlor and greet their fellow citizens. The hostess was very Japanese in her gay kimono, but you would scarcely have known that one of the gentlemen was from the heart of the celestial kingdom had you not observed the heart-shaped locket he wore of painted china! There was 'Ole' who insisted he had been over 'two yaar' but whose homespun green trousers and brown plaid coat hardly smacked of Broadway; and there was 'Olga' in a wonderful Norwegian wedding gown with eleborate beaded front. Olga made for Ole at once, be it noted. And there was Maria Baptista Paparipapolous from sunny Italy, with bright short skirt and bodice and all her worldly goods bundled on her head. There were some old women of various nationalities, besides one deaf and one dumb, so the gathering lacked monotony. After much informal bantering and a trick in figures propounded by the 'Inspector' we settled down to see who could make the greatest number of words from 'United States' in five minutes. Italian Maria won, I believe by a judicious use of plurals! Then we chose sides and had charades, all the remainder of the evening, Olga and Ole posing very effectively, I remember, as 'oleander.' There was a howl of dismay when the hostess handed out steerage fare for refreshments—hard crackers and water—but she relented later and produced coffee and doughnuts. Then we had our annual 'grab-package,' each one bringing a New Year's gift and getting some package in exchange, and then our annual burning of the greens, when each one laid a branch on the flames and gave a New Year resolution, or a New Year's wish for the company."

Pendragon next called attention to the tasteful program of the Coudersport, Pa., Society of the Hall in the Grove, and invited the delegate to give further particulars of their work. "You'll notice," she said, "that we meet weekly; our Chautauqua training all these years has established the habit with us. This year we specialized. We went back to Greece and gave a classical year ahead of time and in contrast with the Greek features studied three plays of Shakespeare, 'Othello,' 'Richard III,' and 'The Tempest,' reading these aloud at our meetings." She indicated a sketch map posted on the bulletin board. "This is from the undergraduate circle of Coudersport which has been looking up the constituent elements of our community. You will observe that our inland Pennsylvania town is very differently constituted from the cosmopoli-

tan 'Troy' on the Hudson which was exhibited at one of our recent gatherings."

"This is perhaps a fitting time," said Pendragon, "to mention a new S. H. G. formed this year at North Clarendon, Pa. It has eleven members, and its opening meeting which was in the nature of a trip around the world, started the young society auspiciously. There seems to be promise of a decided increase in the number of these societies during the coming year. There is chance for great development here for the latent enthusiasm of Chautauqua graduates is constantly receiving confirmation. I don't know a better example than the S. H. G. of Urbana, Ill., from which we shall be glad to hear."

"We have some rather unusual advantages," responded the delegate, "and so we are trying to make the most of them. Our S. H. G. has a membership of about thirty-five and remembering the Chautauqua ideal of the 'College Outlook' we arranged both last and this year for special class work under a professor from the University of Illinois. Last year we studied Shakespeare, passed written examinations upon our work and Chautauqua awarded us seals. This year, we are studying American literature. Twenty-five of us meet once a week during the school year at private houses, each residence serving as class room for one month. We've enjoyed thus far the study of Irving, Poe, Hawthorne, and Emerson and hope to pass our examination creditably. We were represented at a reciprocity meeting of the clubs of Urbana and Champaign and made a report of our study methods. We have an undergraduate circle also of sixty members, and a year ago had a delightful lecture from President George E. Vincent. Since Urbana is an 'Assembly' town, C. L. S. C. graduates each year receive their diplomas on Recognition Day and after that ceremony we conduct them to the Chautauqua tent and give them a reception, welcoming them into the S. H. G. Each member is allowed to invite two friends and in this way we cultivate interest in the C. L. S. C. and build up the undergraduate circle which from year to year adds also to the membership of the S. H. G."

"At Shelbyville, Illinois," said Pendragon, as he introduced the next speaker, "the S. H. G. is a department of the Woman's Club. This seems to indicate a purely feminine interest in the organization." "We try to be a credit to the intellectual ideals of the C. L. S. C. even in if we are mere women," responded the delegate, "and as the undergraduate circle is quite free from club en-

tanglements of this sort, we feel that the future of man is not, as yet, seriously imperiled! As an S. H. G. we keep up with the regular work in THE CHAUTAUQUAN and then specialize on one or two books which we want to make the nucleus of leisurely investigations. Our two organizations meet at occasional intervals and most of us attend the assembly at Lithia Springs where we hold our annual banquet and assist in the exercises of Recognition Day. I ought to say that our relation to the Woman's Club as a department, means that we share in the public activities of that organization at the same time preserving our own individuality as a Chautauqua Study Club."

A member from Windsor, Illinois, examined with interest the program of a special meeting of the Shelbyville S. H. G. "We are not quite a year old," she said, "and we started with only nine members, but our S. H. G. expects to grow as four members of the society were graduates of 1907. We also are a department of the Woman's Club, most of whose officers are or have been C. L. S. C. members. Our society has been doing the regular American year's work and the undergraduate circle this year is composed almost entirely of young people just out of the high school. Mrs. Raymond Robins, the well known settlement worker of Chicago, was our guest in January and gave us glimpses of American industrial conditions in striking contrast to those of our own town where we have practically no foreigners."

Another somewhat recent graduate organization from Norwalk, Ohio, was also cordially welcomed to the Round Table. The delegate reported a society two years old with some thirty members. A group of these members have taken up definite literary work during the past two years, meeting monthly. "For we cling to Chautauqua traditions," she explained, "although we realize the strength of the social bond also. For this reason, we held our first S. H. G. reunion and banquet last October so that we might bring together all of the graduates we could reach whether they are studying or not. You would have been edified by the dignified hilarity of the meeting." The delegate gave a little reminiscent chuckle as she went on: "We had present a number of 'Pioneers' for Norwalk was an early Chautauqua town, and you should have heard them give the '82 yell! This rather put the '07's on their mettle and we felt proud of our six newest graduates. We decorated the tables with salvia in their honor, read original poems, indulged in reminiscences of Chautauqua and were entertained with music and recitations. This yearly gathering promises to be an important event

in our Chautauqua calendar; and the undergraduate circle is steadily training up Chautauquans to strengthen the S. H. G."

"I'm afraid I shall have to defend our Alumni for producing such a program as this," laughed the delegate from Carrollton, Ohio, as she laid a tastefully bound booklet on the table. "My next neighbor here at the Round Table who looked it over just before the meeting opened says it reminded her of those lines from the 'Ancient Mariner,'

> "'Backwards and forwards, half her length,
> With a short, uneasy motion,'

and I confess it seems to justify the criticism. I can best explain it as an extreme case of reaction! We've studied systematically so long that our feminine natures at last rebelled. We deliberately flung logic and order to the winds and abandoned ourselves to the joys of a lawless program of travel. Hence, in October you see we visited the Land of the Midnight Sun and our own Southern States. In November we sailed across the Pacific and then settled down at Winona, Indiana! In December we contrasted Italy and Southern California which might seem to have some underlying unity. So we headed off any such tendency in February by climbing Vesuvius and visiting Holland. It's been such a delightfully disorderly trip that I've no doubt we shall soon be filled with an ardent longing to specialize on art or archaeology or something whose roots run down very deep. Our Alumni was organized in 1895 and now there is another circle of graduates also."

"With such a well established company of C. L. S. C. graduates," said Pendragon, "the new Chautauqua which I learn is to be started in Carrollton this year ought to have no difficulty in enlightening people on the benefits of the C. L. S. C. and we shall hope to learn of a fine new circle in the town next autumn. This letter from Tarentum, Pennsylvania, reports that as many of the members are already interested in the regular circle of the town the S. H. G. holds a reception annually at which the new graduates are guests of honor, and to this they invite all C. L. S. C. members, 'new, old, delinquent and prospective.'"

"Our S. H. G.," reported a New London, Ohio, member, Mrs. Pond, "dates back to 1884. You will see from this program and our list of graduates that a large number of the classes are represented from 1884 to 1903. We have two meetings yearly, but as there is now an undergraduate circle with some twelve members, the later classes are also making themselves felt. They meet weekly and have most interesting discussions, different members taking charge."

The Round Table members examined with interest the program of the New London S. H. G.'s banquet. It was dated 1906 in honor of the graduating class that year, and the cover was decorated with on olive wreath. A complete list of the graduates with their class numerals was also included.

"Perhaps you'd like a word from the old Alpha of Cincinnati," said the delegate from that city. "Some of these younger Chautauquans may be interested in the fact that we hold the record for years, if not for the qualities of advanced age. We were organized in 1878 and after finishing the four years, kept right on. We have in all nineteen members, and two are undergraduates who are taking the regular work but come to us for Shakespeare study, as we have been exploring the great poet's mind for some years and now are including a little Milton also, adding some touches of a modern sort occasionally in keeping with the Chautauqua spirit of understanding the language of our time."

"Two more Ohio societies must be mentioned," said Pendragon. "East Cleveland which holds a yearly meeting and has sent out helpful influences in many directions, and Toledo where the organization dates back to 1896 and meets quarterly with a literary and social program. I learn," he said, "that the Belfast, Maine, Alumni not only try with tactfulness to draw outsiders into their net, but they also deliberately gather up the society bodily and drive ten miles into the country to insure an absent member's meeting with them!" "It's quite true," responded the delegate, "we propose to do this in June. We also have one member in California for the winter and are improving the opportunity to get 'personal impressions' of the far west. Five members came into our Alumni from the class of 1907 so you may know we don't mean to let the rising generation slip away from us. One of the American garnet seal courses has absorbed our energies this winter and we mean to add seals to our diplomas. Our Alumni keep in friendly touch with other circles; it has helped to establish an evening circle for readers who could not join one in the afternoon."

Apropos of New England, Pendragon referred to the Vincent Circle of Providence, Rhode Island, which, though not exactly an S. H. G., has a membership largely made up of graduates. They are reading the regular course and have given a friendly welcome to some of the newer Chautauquans. "We really must draw the line," he said, "for it is closing time, with the briefest allusions to three of our well-established Alumni in New York State. The Syracuse Alumni which began with the Class of '89 you will infer from this daisy bedecked program, holds an autumn meeting which is an

important anniversary occasion. The members of the Holley Alumni celebrated in March their thirteenth anniversary, utilizing St. Patrick's associations in the program. The Brooklyn Alumni have had a year's review of significant periods in American history with certain pointed discussions of present day problems. One member gave some interesting reminiscences of her years of teaching at an Indian reservation on Martha's Vineyard."

"Before we separate let me add one word. As our Alumni grow older there will be a tendency now and then to lose a certain initiative and freshness. Two things will help us to guard against this—first, a committee of younger members to do aggressive work in organizing circles; second, a committee of older members whose function shall be to keep the alumni close to the forward currents of the world's life. If the organization meets regularly for study, the members will easily keep their freshness of thought. If they meet only once a year, a committee should be appointed to report at that occasion on certain books of the time which every Chautauquan should know. Every alumnus should be urged to read THE CHAUTAUQUAN regularly—to subscribe for it if possible as a contribution to the work of the C. L. S. C., and in any case to read it because it is 'worth while' for the oldest Chautauquan as well as for the newest reader."

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON "AS OTHERS SEE US."

1. Walter H. Page; Dr. Albert Shaw; a board of editors including Miss Ida M. Tarbell, Lincoln Steffens and others; Norman Hapgood; Lyman Abbott. 2. New York 58, Chicago 32, St. Louis 14, Boston 12, Baltimore 7, New Orleans 7, Seattle 5. 3. About five hundred. 4. Between forty and fifty.

Assembly Calendar for 1908.

(For the convenience of C. L. S. C. members who intend to take advantage of the C. L. S. C. exercises held this summer by various Chautauqua Assemblies throughout the country the following list of Assemblies is published. We have here noted only those Assemblies which have already determined upon the date of a Recognition Day. Other Assemblies there are which have not yet arranged the details of their summer programs. We shall publish in the July CHAUTAUQUAN a revised list of all Chautauquas which, to our knowledge, observe the Recognition day exercises or endeavor to promote the C. L. S. C. work.)

Name of Chautauqua. *Assembly Dates.* *Manager.*

CALIFORNIA.

Pacific Grove, July 12-25. Mrs. E. J. Dawson, Sec., San Jose, Cal.
Recognition Day, July 21. Speaker, W. C. Evans, D. D.

CONNECTICUT.

Caanan (Pine Grove) July 28-Aug. 5. E. C. Tullar
Recognition Day, July 30. Speaker, Rev. G. M. Brown.

Plainville (Conn. Chaut. Assem.) July 21-29. B. F. Gilman, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 23.

ILLINOIS.

Dixon (Rock River), Aug. 1-16. L. A. Beard. Supt. Polo.
Recognition Day, Aug 10. Speaker, Judge D. E. Mack.

Havana, July 30-Aug. 16. Jas. L. Loar, Mgr. Bloomington.
Recognition Day, Aug 7. Speaker, Dr. George E. Vincent.

Lithia Springs, Aug. 15-30. Rev. J. L. Douthit.
Recognition Day, Aug. 24.

Petersburg (Old Salem), Aug. 5-20. Rev. J. M. Johnson.
Recognition Day, Aug. 15.

Pontiac, July 18-Aug. 2 A. C. Folsom, Mgr.
Recognition Day, July 25. Speaker, Dr. E. L. Eaton.

INDIANA.

Kokomo, July 31-Aug. 9. Wm. E. Ranch Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 8.

IOWA.

Clarinda, Aug. 5-14. W. E. Whittaker, Sec.
Recognition Day, August 13.

Fort Dodge, Aug. 16-23. J. F. Monk, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 17. Speaker, Rev. M. S. Hughes.

State Centre, June 27-July 5. W. L. Newman, Secretary.
Recognition Day, July 4. Speaker, Dr. Frank Gunsaulus.

Waterloo, June 22-July 2. R. N. Corwin, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 1. Speaker, Mrs. Charles Risser.

KANSAS.

Cawker City (Lincoln Park Assem.), Aug. 1-16. Robert Good, Sec., Jamestown.
Recognition Day, Aug. 11.

Clay Center (Clay County Chautauqua), Aug. 7-16. H. W. Stackpole, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 13.

Ottawa, June 16-26. Henry Durst, Sec.
Recognition Day, June 25.

Wathena, Aug. 8-16. A. W. Themanson, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 12. Speaker, Rev. M. F. Troxell.

Winfield, July 6-17. A. H. Limerick, Sec., 119 E. 9th Ave.
Recognition Day, July 13.

MAINE.

Ocean Park, July 18-Aug. 31. F. S. Hartley.
Recognition Day, Aug. 6. Speaker, Prof. A. W. Anthony, D. D.

MARYLAND.

Mountain Lake Park, Aug. 4-28. W. L. Davidson, Mgr., 1711 Lamont St, N. W., Washington, D. C.
Recognition Day, Aug. 26. Speaker, Rev. D. W. Howell.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Northampton (Conn. Valley Chautauqua), July 7-17. Dr. W. L. Davidson, Mgr., 1711 Lamont St., N. W., Washington, D. C.
Recognition Day, July 14. Speaker, Dr. Charles F. Aked.

MISSOURI.

Carthage, July 2-9 E. H. Wyatt, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 9.

Mexico, July 19-26. Chas E. Stokes, 1123 E 12th St., Kansas City, Mgr.
Recognition Day, July 24.

NEBRASKA.

Tecumseh, July 10-19. Dr. C. W. Graff, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 14. Speaker, Gen. John C. Black.

NEW JERSEY.

Ocean Grove, June 14-Sept. 31. A. E. Ballad, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 31. Speaker, Bishop Wilson.

NEW YORK.

Chautauqua, July 2-Aug. 30. A. E. Bestor.
Recognition Day, Aug. 19. Speaker, Pres. Henry C. King.

OHIO.

Bethesda (Epworth Park), Aug. 6-23. J. S. Secrest, Supt.
Recognition Day, Aug. 21. Speaker, Dr. W. O. Thompson.

Franklin (Miami Valley), July 17-Ang. 3. F. Gillum Cromer, Mgr.
Recognition Day, July 31.

Orrville, July 17-Aug. 2. Byron W. King, Pres., Pittsburg, Pa.
Recognition Day, July 30. Speaker, Rev. Dr. Elward.

Ruggles Beach (Firelands), Aug 1-9 John Laylin, Sec.
Recognition Day, August 4.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Mount Gretna, July 3.-Aug 5. V. W. Dippell, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 30. Speaker, Gov. Stuart. Lebanon, Pa.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

Big Stone Lake Chautauqua, June 30-July 15. R. J. Hicks, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 10. Speaker, Frank Allan Peake.

Madison, June 27-July 14. G. G. Smith, Pres.
Recognition Day, July 7.

WISCONSIN.

Madison (Monona Lake), July 21-31. Jas E. Moseley, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 31. Speaker, Rev. D. W. Howell.

PICTURES AND THEIR PAINTERS: THE HISTORY OF PAINTING. By Lorinda M. Bryant. John Lane Company: New York. 1907. 440 pages, 317 illustrations.

This is a very useful survey book for students who wish to gain or to regain a general view of the history of painting. It is discussed in forty chapters under eleven divisions, these being Ancient Painting, Italian Painting, Venetian Painting, Later Italian, Dutch, Flemish, Spanish, German, French, English, and American. It is not intended, of course, for a reading book, but by way of reference and review it is very useful. In such a work as this, it is not out of place to mention the quality of the paper and cuts, without which the value of the book would be very greatly reduced. As it stands, it is doubtless one of the best of its kind.

WHEN AMERICA WAS NEW. Tudor Jenks. Pp. 320. 7¾x5. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.

Not the land which the colonists came to inhabit, nor the political events that grew out of their being here, but the characteristics and life of the colonists themselves are the objects of attention. The choice of material is excellent, the style interesting, and the whole result well worth while. Material which has hereofore existed chiefly in more expensive if not more forbidding works is here made available for the young and for the reader who is neither scholar nor faddist. As collateral to Chautauqua studies in colonial literature the book may be mentioned with special favor.

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The CHAUTAUQUAN

The Puget Sound Country and Alaska

A Tenderfoot in the Mesa Verde

The Eries

Historic Fernandez de Taos

Chautauqua News and Notes

THE CHAUTAUQUA PRESS CHAUTAUQUA, NEW YORK

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

THE MAGAZINE OF SYSTEM IN READING

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Snohomish Falls, Washington.
(See "The Puget Sound Country and Alaska," page 175.)

THE CHAUTAUQUAN
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WE have already referred to the White House conference of May on the conservation of the natural resources and the prevention of waste. The conference is to have palpable and substantial results. It would have done much had it merely awakened popular interest in the many-sided question, but it has actually done more, much more.

In the first place it has not only emphasized the need of constant and amicable coöperation between the states and the federal government, and of the states among themselves, but it has served to bring out the truth that the difficulties in the way of such coöperation while great, are not what many have thought they were. Secretary Root, in a speech on the duties, powers and opportunities of the states, made these points:

"Now the states in the exercise of their sovereignties, in the exercise of the powers reserved to them, rest under the same kind of duty—a duty that forbids the people of any state to live unto itself alone. The constitution of the United States prohibits the states from making any agreement with each other without the consent of congress, but you can make any number of agreements with the consent of congress.

"Why should not the powers that are reserved to the state sovereignty be exercised by those sovereignties with a wise regard for the common interests? It is high time that the sovereign states of the union should begin to perform their duties with reference not only to their own individual local interests but with reference to the common good. I regard this meeting as marking a new departure—the beginning of an era in which the states of the union will exercise their reserved powers upon a higher plane of patriotism and love of country than has ever existed before."

If the states have the wisdom and the earnestness required by the great task, coöperation under the supervision

and with the sanction of Congress will assume many forms in the near future. It will be resorted to in forest preservation, in the control of rivers, the construction of dams and reservoirs, the reclamation of swamps, the prevention of pollution, the proper utilization of water power, and so on. Already several projects have been suggested that require the concerted action of several states; more will follow.

The conference has also indorsed the principle for which Mr. Roosevelt has contended in connection with coal and oil lands owned by the nation and with grants of water power. It has declared that such wealth should remain a common heritage and not improvidently turned over to privileged interests and monopolies. Land scandals, the reckless destruction of forests, perpetual franchises that have made fortunes for the few at the expense of the nation—these are among the phenomena that render it necessary to adopt a systematic policy of conservation—conservation not merely in a physical and material, but also in a politico-economic sense.

There had been considerable talk of making the conference permanent, of creating "a House of Governors" that should meet annually for the exchange of notes and thoughts on questions of common concern. On this question the White House Conference took no action, believing it premature. It was decided to hold another conference next year, however, and then future steps will be considered. Meantime it is certain that the discussion at the conference will make for care, sobriety and deliberation in everything pertaining to our national resources. The principles of the movement are better understood; the application of them by legislatures and executives will be appreciated and supported by the public. The resolutions adopted by the conference are very comprehensive, and as they admirably state the scope of the "conservation" problem, the following two paragraphs may be reproduced here:

"We declare our firm conviction that the conservation of our natural resources is a subject of transcendent importance, which

should engage unremittingly the attention of the nation, the states and the people in earnest coöperation. These natural resources include the land on which we live and which yields our food; the living waters which fertilize the soil, supply power and form great avenues of commerce; the forests, which yield the materials for our homes, prevent erosion of the soil and conserve the navigation and other uses of our streams, and the minerals which form the basis of our industrial life and supply us with heat, light and power.

"We agree that the land should be so used that erosion and soil wash should cease; that there should be reclamation of arid and semi-arid regions by means of irrigation, and of swamp and overflowed regions by means of drainage; that the waters should be so conserved and used as to promote navigation, to enable the arid regions to be reclaimed by irrigation, and to develop power in the interests of the people; that the forests, which regulate our rivers, support our industries and promote the fertility and productiveness of the soil, should be preserved and perpetuated; that the minerals found so abundantly beneath the surface should be so used as to prolong their utility; that the beauty, healthfulness and habitability of our country should be preserved and increased; that the sources of national wealth exist for the benefit of all the people, and that the monopoly thereof should not be tolerated."

Navies, Defence and Greatness

In connection with the arbitration movement it is instructive to refer to the recent controversy over the proper naval and defence policy for the United States. The President and a minority in Congress demanded appropriations for four new battleships, their argument being that preparedness for war is the best guaranty of peace, and that in view of the naval plans of the other great powers it has become necessary for us to strengthen and enlarge our own navy. Additions to the army have also been proposed and advocated on the same general grounds. But a majority in each branch of Congress firmly opposed the program and voted for only two new battleships, first because of the deficit in the Treasury for the year and need of economy, and because many believed that we are safe without a huge navy.

Incidentally Representative Towney of Minnesota brought to the attention of Congress and the people some striking figures of comparative national expenditures on

army, navy, pensions and defense generally. Here is the table:

Country.	Amount.	Per cent of revenues.
United States	$384,801,059	67.5
England	299,925,821	52.5
France	231,941,123	32.2
Germany	248,733,220	42.9

These figures show that "military burdens" are actually heavier, absolutely, in the United States than any one of the European countries described as "armed camps." Of course, we are rich, young and far better able to bear such burdens, but that does not affect the question of policy.

That question is one which must be seriously considered in the future. And the average citizen has two theories, two points of view, to choose from—that which insists that the greatest economy lies in "full insurance," in so preparing ourselves for war that no power will ever dream of attacking us, and that which asserts that justice, peaceful diplomacy, fair dealing and high standards are our best defenses, and that huge navies and armaments tempt to aggression and "swash-buckling" and increase the chances of war instead of lessening them.

More Victories for Arbitration

We have drawn attention to the several arbitration treaties which our State Department has negotiated and which the Senate has ratified. Today Germany is practically the only advanced first-class power with which we have no such treaty. A convention with England has been added to the number, as well as one with Japan. The latter treaty is the most significant of all, for several reasons. In the first place, Japan is an Asiatic and pagan power; in the second, she is a new member of the great family of nations, her civilization being acquired and recent. In the third place, she has had friction ever since the Manchurian war with China, with the United States, with England, or rather with

British merchants and exporters, and with others interested in far-eastern commerce or in the question of Asiatic immigration.

Only a few months ago, indeed, there was much excited talk in this country of probable war with Japan over the coolie immigration question. She was supposed to object to any exclusion of her laborers, to any discrimination whatever, and feeling ran so high that any case of personal violence, any untoward incident, to say nothing about such a dispute as the San Francisco school episode occasioned, might have precipitated serious trouble. Today not only are all difficulties adjusted, but we have a general arbitration treaty with Japan which removes practically all danger of conflict in the near future.

The text of all the treaties is substantially the same. They provide for arbitration of all controversies of a legal nature or such as arise under the interpretation of conventions. Questions of vital interest, sovereignty, or honor are excluded from the scope of the treaties. It may seem and to some cynically-minded writers it does seem, that the treaties are of very little value, since war rarely results from technical, legal or other "non-vital" controversies. This, however, is entirely erroneous. As Secretary Root said in his speech at the recent laying of the corner stone of the American Temple of Peace, the structure that is to house the Bureau of American Republics at Washington, "the matters in dispute between nations are nothing, the spirit which deals with them is everything." And, as he went on to say, no question is so grave and threatening that it cannot be settled peaceably if both or all parties really desire peace, and no question is so trivial that it cannot be made the pretext for war if either of the parties wants war and hopes to gain something by it. "Vital" questions have been arbitrated—witness the Venezuelan boundary question which the United States raised against England under the Monroe doctrine. Trifling questions have led to war again and again, thanks to treacherous di-

plomacy, cunning and greed. The essential thing is to foster a peace sentiment in the world, to educate the public in each country to rely on reason and arbitration, to frown on sensationalism and foolish prejudice, to demand justice in international relations. The arbitration treaties are both a cause and an effect of the great peace movement. They could not have been negotiated ten years ago; they are easily concluded today. They will pave the way for further peace victories, for more comprehensive treaties and a deeper, firmer anti-war sentiment.

The Biggest and the Tiniest Republics

An incident to be recorded with interest is the ratification by the Senate of the United States, the greatest republic in the world, of a treaty of extradition with San Marino, the smallest and oldest of the existing republics. San Marino is too simple, old-fashioned and quiet to care to offer a refuge to defaulters, embezzlers and other enterprising criminals, but in the absence of a treaty such fugitives from American justice might have claimed its hospitality.

San Marino is independent though under the general protection of Italy. It is in the northeast of that kingdom, and only about nine miles from Rimini. Its area is 38 square miles, its population is a little over 11,000, and its military force consists of 38 officers and 950 men. It has no public debt, and its annual revenue, balanced by the expenditure, reaches the total of $60,000. It is governed by an elective council of 60 members, a small council of 12, and two regents, the last-named being appointed every six months from the membership of the larger council.

This form of government has changed little in a thousand years, and if happiness, as some say, is the condition of freedom from happenings, changes and sensations, San Marino has been a very happy little state.

The world has witnessed many tragic and other changes since the San Marino republic was founded (by a pious mason from Dalmatia, it is traditionally held). But its independence has been respected, and not even Napoleon, in overturning states and distributing power, coveted its territory. He left it, he is quoted as having sardonically remarked, to Europe as a sample and reminder of republicanism. Thus he harmlessly, from the standpoint of his ambition, manifested a sentimental regard for the great revolution, whose "child" he was.

It would do some of our too strenuous fellow-citizens lots of good to visit San Marino and see what the simple, quiet life is.

The English Old-age Pension Scheme

After years of agitation and discussion, and following formal action in Parliament indorsing the "principle" of old-age pensions, the British liberal government has at last offered as part of the new national budget a scheme for such pensions. It is the work of Mr. Asquith, now premier but chancellor of the exchequer at the time it was considered and evolved. It is not in any sense radical or daring, and many of the labor leaders and of the original champions of pensions complain of its inadequacy and limitations in various directions. But the serious and practical question of "finding the money" has, as we have explained, hampered Mr. Asquith and forced him to begin tentatively and cautiously. He could not propose new taxes without arousing a storm of protest and deep resentment, though the radicals insist that the rich are still escaping their rightful burdens and that it would be simple justice to tax unearned incomes heavily for the benefit of the industrious poor whom age and disability force to retire from the great army of workers. Reduction of naval and military expenditures has been declared to be out of the question, owing to the failure of the peace congress at The Hague to agree on any action looking

to simultaneous limitation of armaments and defence budgets by the great powers. Social reform is costly, and governments, even if pledged to such reform, plead that their resources impose particular prudence on them.

The Asquith or liberal scheme provides for weekly pensions of $1.25 to persons over seventy years of age, the whole pension to be paid by the government from the national treasury and no contribution to be exacted from the beneficiary. No one with an income of $130 a year or over will be entitled to any pension, while a married couple will get less than the total that would be due them as separate individuals. Criminals, insane persons and paupers are disqualified, and persons in receipt of poor law relief in any form are to be treated as paupers. It is estimated that even with these restrictions 500,000 persons will be entitled to old-age pensions at the beginning of next year, when the measure, by its terms, takes effect. The annual cost of the scheme to the national treasury is estimated at $30,000,000 or only one-fifth of what the United States pays today in pensions to war veterans and their widows.

But the plan, cautious as it is, is attacked from all sides. It is declared to be a needless, dangerous and demagogical sop to socialism; it is said to be a menace to thrift and self-reliance and foresight; it is described as the entering wedge that will bring about confiscation of property. And among those who sympathize to some extent with the idea itself the complaint is that Mr. Asquith and his cabinet have created a new obligation without providing funds to meet it with. There is a little over $7,500,000 at the government's disposal now to put aside for pensions, and this will be exhausted in three months. What about next year? Will new taxes then be proposed? Can the cabinet guarantee another surplus? What if the commercial depression continues and there is little or no surplus? What if an increase in military expenditures be necessary? In short, Mr. Asquith is charged with "clever juggling," and the advocates of protection assert that only by means of tariff duties on foreign goods can

the money for adequate pensions be provided permanently and "honestly."

But if the liberals remain in power two or three years, as they are now said to be planning to do, in spite of reverses in by-elections, they will have ample opportunity to demonstrate that pensions are not dependent on or bound up with a protectionist policy. They are pleased with the Asquith budget and hope that the next two budgets will also reflect credit on their statesmanship and attract the support of moderate progressives and friends of rational social reform.

Socialism in America and Elsewhere

The Socialist party of America has again nominated Mr. Eugene Debs for President. Its new platform contains a number of planks that show a desire to emphasize the practical side of the socialistic movement. Many "immediate" reforms are demanded in the interest of labor, of women, of children, so that men who are not in sympathy with the theoretical demands of socialism in its strict sense may find many things in the platform which they are ready to support without committing themselves on the ultimate questions.

Among the demands of the platform are: national ownership of all means of transportation and communication, national ownership of all industries organized on a national scale and freed from competition of the senate, woman suffrage, graduated income taxes and inheritance taxation, government by majority vote, restriction of woman's labor.

All over the world the tendency of the Socialist movement is to subordinate the theoretical or academic side to the practical. There is more and more disposition to adopt the ordinary political methods of action, to work in alliance with other reform parties, to secure small and modest measures that are of a socialistic character or that will familiarize the people with state intervention in behalf of the

masses. It may be, as some writers, indeed, assert, that thousands of men and women who are not full-fledged socialists are now coöperating with that party merely to make effective opposition to the conservative parties and the intrenched governments. But even if this is true, the attitude that leads to such coöperation is significant. It goes to strengthen the Socialists as a force in politics and legislation.

As to the numerical strength of international socialism recent figures, furnished, it is true, by writers friendly to the movement, are very impressive. The socialist vote at this time is said to be between eight and nine millions, distributed as follows: Germany, 3,251,000; France, 1,120,000; Austria, 1,005,000; Belgium, 500,000; Australia, 440,000; the United States, 442,000.

How are the socialists represented in the national legislatures? One writer gives the following answer:

> In the French Chamber of Deputies there are 115 Socialist members, in the popular chamber of the Austrian or Cisleithan Reichsrath there are 87, in the lower house of the Finnish Diet there are 80, in the German Reichstag, 79; in the British House of Commons, 55; in the Belgian Chamber of Deputies, 30; in the popular branch of the Italian Parliament, 25; in the Danish lower house, 24, or almost a quarter of the Chamber; in the Australian House of Representatives, 23, or nearly a third of all the members; in the Norwegian Storthing, 17, or about one-sixth, while there are 15 in the lower house of the Swedish Diet.

There are, we believe, certain inaccuracies in this list, but, on the other hand, it is a fact that the suffrage laws in Germany, Russia and other countries discriminate against the classes from which socialism draws its greatest strength, and under truly universal suffrage the number of socialist deputies and legislators, as of voters, would be increased at least thirty per cent.

The growth of socialism in the last five years has been amazing, especially in the Anglo-Saxon countries. Ten years ago socialism was hardly a factor in the United States or in England.

As to the meaning of these facts, opinions will differ. It may be that, as some thinkers believe, a reaction is com-

ing, and labor will lose its faith in socialist doctrines and ideas. It may be that socialism is destined to become a tremendous political and social force—in England able statesmen fear and predict this consummation. At all events, the phenomenon itself demands attention.

The Progress of Woman's Suffrage

The world hears much more about the activity of the British "suffragettes," their peculiar methods, little disturbances of the peace, harrying of liberal candidates, and so on, than about the quiet but notable victories achieved by the cause of adult and equal suffrage. Yet such victories are becoming frequent, and they occur, moreover, in unexpected places.

The British House of Commons adopted some weeks ago, by a large majority, an explicit resolution indorsing woman suffrage. Last year a similar resolution was determinedly contested and by parliamentary shuffling prevented from reaching a division. There will be no legislation on the subject, however, the government taking the ground that on so radical and momentous a measure as the enfranchisement of women in politics there can properly be no action without a mandate from the people. It is possible that equal suffrage will be an issue in the next general election in Great Britain. Meantime the academic resolution is not without moral significance and effect.

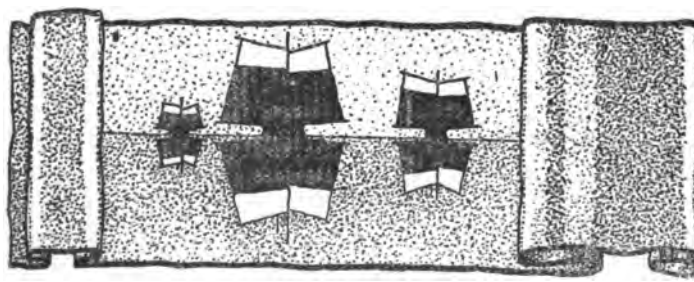
More important is the act passed recently by the Danish parliament at the instance of the government itself. It gives women taxpayers, or the wives of taxpayers, if they are at least twenty-five years of age, the right to vote at all municipal or communal elections on the same basis as the men. From municipal to national suffrage the step is not a large one, and under the influence of her neighbors, Finland and Norway, Denmark may soon take it.

Within the last two years two northern countries, Finland and Norway, have conferred full suffrage on women,

with elegibility to service in Parliament. In the last Finnish Diet nineteen women sat as members; in Norway this right has not yet been exercised.

The International Woman's Suffrage Alliance meets at Amsterdam this year to celebrate these victories and make plans for further campaigning. This organization is young, yet it has representatives of twenty-two countries. It meets in regular conference every five years and in intermediate ones at shorter intervals. Since it was first formed the cause of woman suffrage has made wonderful gains. As a writer recently pointed out in *Harper's Weekly*:

> There are the four full-suffrage countries of New Zealand, Australia, Finland, and Norway—five, in fact, if one includes the United States with its four enfranchised States of Wyoming, Utah, Colorado, and Idaho. Besides the miniature Ise of Man bestowed the ballot on women away back in 1881. Every suffrage, except Parliamentary, flourishes in the five countries of England, Scotland, Ireland, Wales, and Sweden. The municipal vote obtains in two, Iceland and Canada—the former having granted eligibility to municipal office in 1902, and now the generously inclined government announces a bill for full suffrage; while the latter possesses in its nine provinces either municipal or school suffrage, or both. In the municipal list the one State of Kansas should be enrolled. Incidentally it may be added that lesser degrees of suffrage exist elsewhere—in twenty-four other States of the United States, for instance, where women have either the tax-paying or school suffrage; and, to mention one more, in France, where they vote for members of commercial tribunals and other minor offices—small signs which promise new recruits for the international suffrage procession later on.



The Puget Sound Country and Alaska

By Caroline Sheldon

TO many, even Americans, Alaska is still a name synonymous with perpetual snows, a barren tract of country, valuable chiefly for its mines, furs, and fisheries, inhabited only by Indians, Esquimaux, and raw frontiersmen. This idea is, however, very different from the actuality. Many visitors to the Portland Exposition in 1905 took advantage of the Alaskan excursions starting from Seattle, and thus many persons, even from the extreme eastern seaboard, learned what manner of country this far northwestern corner of the United States really is.

Seattle itself, the point of departure, is by no means the least interesting place to be seen. For, despite its apparently chronic condition of uptorn pavements, cable carlines supported on trestle work looking about as substantial as jack-straws, buildings making a transit of the city on wheels, and stupendous enterprises in regrading, there is perhaps no other city in America which makes such an appeal to the imagination. Seattle is "beautiful for situation," and awakens the admiration of even those travelers who have watched the sunset over the Bay of Naples. Imagine two great natural amphitheaters set back to back, one looking out over Puget Sound toward the Olympics, and the other facing Lake Washington and the Cascades; then fancy two or three smaller amphitheaters joining the main ones at various angles and facing Green and Union Lakes. Try to call up a picture of the Sound at the close of a foggy day, its waters flecked with purple and gold reflected from a sky where a lemon-colored band is revealed between the amethyst peaks of the mountains, and a mass of clouds and vapor repeating the same colors in varying tints and shades. Or fancy climbing, some clear, crisp day in February, when the sky is an inverted bowl that it belittles to

call sapphire, to the top of the stand-pipe on Queen Anne Hill—try to pardon the absurd name—or to the attic of some high-placed dwelling, and consider the panorama that will then be revealed: the city throned on what loyal inhabitants call "her seven hills," but which to the uninitiated appear more nearly seventeen, if not seventy; her grass, trees, and abundant vines, green and fresh as in springtime; surrounding the city and making it almost an island, the jeweled waters of the three lakes and the Sound, and beyond all this, the mountains like a girdle of opals, clasped at the south by that shining wonder, Mt. Ranier, and to the north by Mt. Baker, a great rosy pearl.

But besides its natural beauty of location, Seattle appeals to the imagination by its tremendous possibilities. It is like a growing boy, full of "fits and starts" and crudities, but sound at the core and moving toward great things. The men who are leaders in the city are building for the future. Present cost and present comfort count for little with them in comparison with future welfare. The public school system unlike that of most American cities, is absolutely free from politics and favoritism of all sorts, and the men who direct it, both the board of education and the administrative officers, are men of character and trained intelligence, who, while doing all they can for the schools of today, have always in mind the needs of the schools of tomorrow. The State University of Washington, located in the northeastern part of the city on a large and beautiful campus skirting the shore of Lake Washington, while crowded and cramped because the erection of buildings cannot keep pace with the increase in numbers of students, is also an institution where excellent work is done and every step taken with an eye to future needs.

Things move very rapidly in this city of the west; the population reckoned on the basis of school attendance, has more than doubled within the past five years. Business in all lines is carried on on a gigantic scale, and everyone moves as in great haste. Yet the true Seattleite is singularly free

from nervousness and worry. He appreciates the magnificent scenery and manages to find some time to enjoy it. A large proportion of the families resident in Seattle leave their city homes in April to live in tents, "shacks" or house boats on the Sound or lake shore until November. Everybody goes boating or canoeing, and nearly every young person learns to swim. The "forest primeval" is within easy walking distance of this city of two hundred thousand inhabitants; and its mighty fir-trees, besides furnishing food for the vast lumber mills and ship-yards, afford, with the many beautiful native shrubs and the various ferns and wild flowers, an opportunity for the poorest child to come in contact with nature.

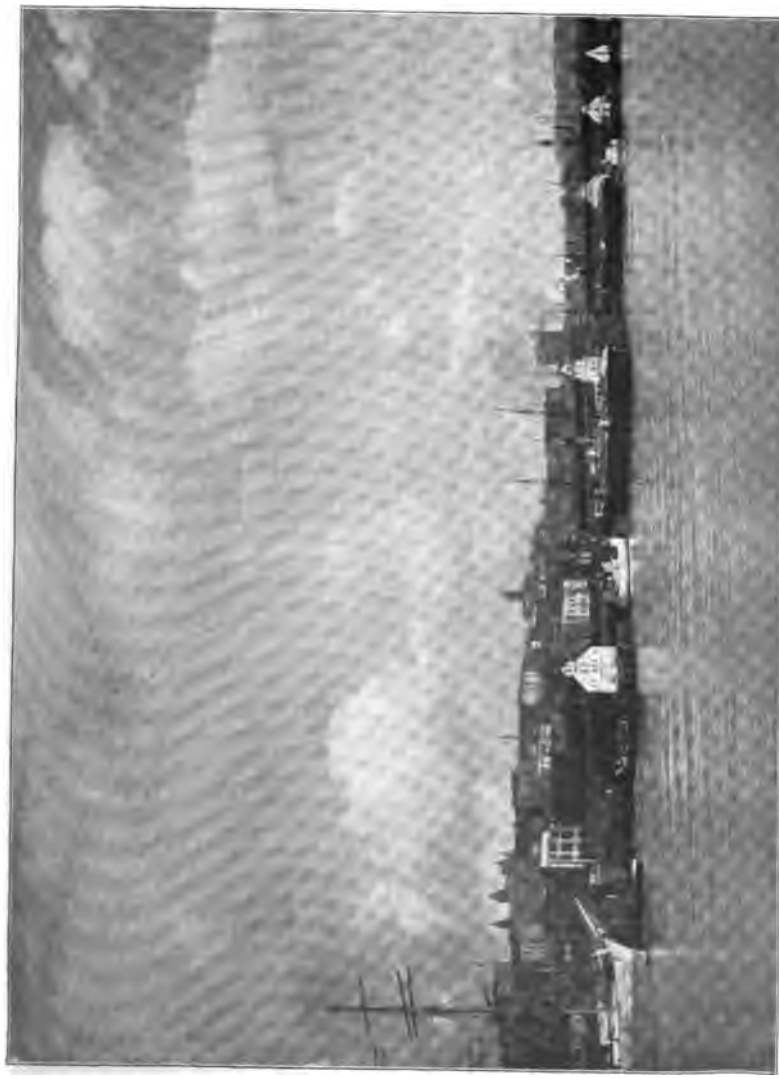
Churches flourish in Seattle. There are thirteen Congregational churches within the city limits, and doubtless as many of each of the other leading denominations. I counted five new ones in process of construction one morning, besides the new Roman Catholic cathedral whose cross glitters from the highest hill-top. It is a suggestive bit of symbolism, this shining golden cross that strikes the eye from any and every point in the city and harbor. The Sunday Schools, Young People's societies and boys' and girls' clubs are progressive; and though Seattle has its "submerged district" and its "water front," the moral tone is generally wholesome. Over on Queen Anne Hill is one church specially known for the hold its has gained on working men, who with their pastor, for the most part built the church, which is open every evening in the week as a neighborhood center of light and help.

The population is cosmopolitan. Go into a school-room, and in a class of from twenty-five to thirty members, you will find two or three Japanese, one or two lads from Fairbanks, Nome, or Skaguay, some one who has recently come from Costa Rica, the Canal Zone, or New Mexico, and others whose admission cards are signed by school officials in St. Louis, Washington, D. C., Minneapolis, Chicago, Albany, or Boston.

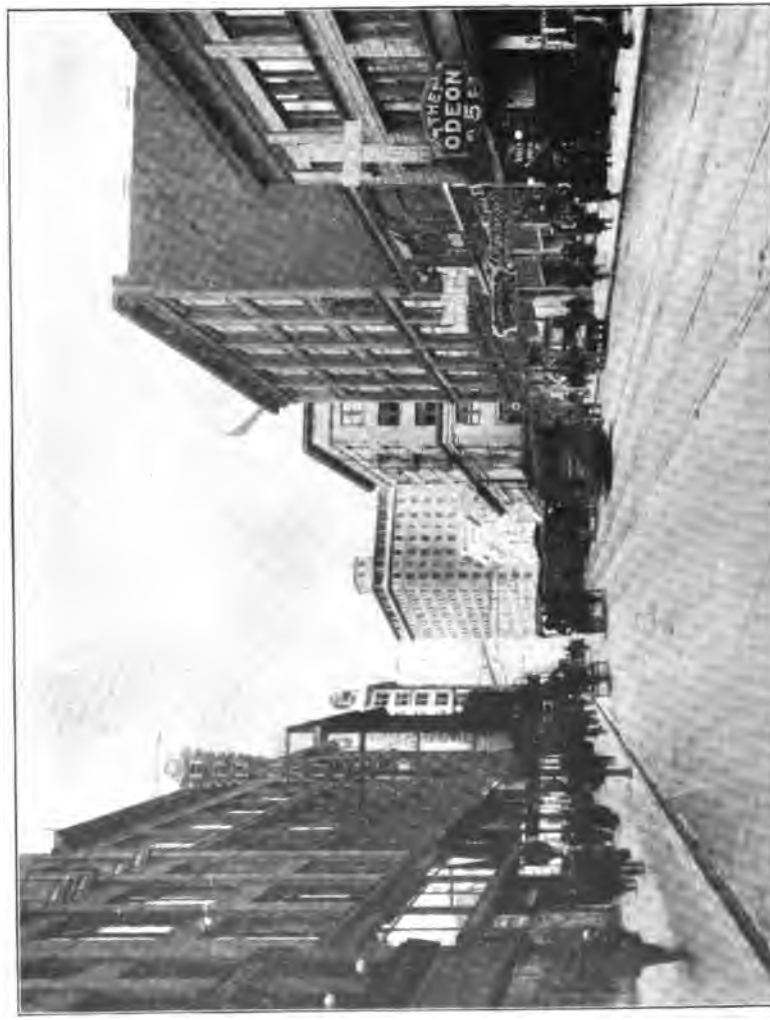
There are several other charming cities around Puget Sound, chief among them, Olympia, the capital of the state, Everett, and Tacoma. The two former are chiefly interesting from their possibilities but Tacoma is beautiful just as it is. After a long series of years when it remained stationary, it has, of late, begun growing again; but to most visitors its chief attractions are its wonderful view of Mt. Rainier—here called Mt. Tacoma—and Point Defiance Park. From other reasons than theirs, I am inclined to agree with the people of this city in their contention that the mountain should be called Tacoma, or rather Tahoma (with a guttural *h*.) Their reason is civic pride; mine, that the old Indian name is far more musical than the new one. It seems a pity that, with so many beautiful Indian names to choose from, Washington towns give themselves such commonplace names as Bellingham and such hyphenated abominations as Cedro-Woolley. How much more attractive are Spokane, Walla Walla, Chehalis, Snohomish, Tacoma (Tahoma), and Seattle (Sealth), and how much fuller of meaning.

In laying out Point Defiance Park the people of Tacoma have been restricted, because the land belongs to the national government, to such landscape gardening as in no way changes the natural features of the places. This restriction has really resulted in greater beauty for the park, which in many ways recalls the famous "English Gardens" of Munich, with the odds greatly in favor of the far western park.

No one can stay long in the Sound country without being infected by one of two fevers, if indeed he does not contract both: the Japanese and the Alaskan. The sight of steamers coming and going and unloading their wares; the native and foreign curios sold in the shops and along streets; and conversations with Japanese students and travelers returned from the island empire, as well as with men, women and boys who have spent more or less time in Alaska,



The Water Front, Seattle.



Looking South on Second Avenue, Seattle, Washington.

Bird's Eye View of Seattle from the Southeast.

On the Campus, University of Washington, Seattle.

New City Library, Seattle.

New Roman Catholic Cathedral, Seattle.

A Road through the "Forest Primeval" in Washington

Russian Block-House, Sitka, Alaska.

all kindle in the veins of the most staid what Judge Lindsey of Denver calls the "going about fever."

Consequently, when the opportunity came for a glimpse of the far Northwest the present scribe eagerly embraced it, though the proposed trip was to southern Alaska only. It is best, when visiting a land so full of wonders, in a limited time, to try to see only a part of it; anything more is likely to bring on a severe fit of mental indigestion.

Going northward on one of the steamers of the Alaska S. S. Co. one sails, between Seattle and Skaguay, for six days along a winding channel bordered on one hand by the lofty peaks of the mainland, and on the other by a chain of islands each culminating in one or more mountains rising to as great heights as those of the neighboring continent.

One is repeatedly impressed with the beauty of Alaskan town-sites. Yet it is not strange that every town on the Alaskan coast, though each is built, as some one said of Ketchikan "one-half on piles driven into the water and one-half in holes blasted in the rocks," has a beautiful site. It would be exceedingly difficult, in this region, to find a spot that is not beautiful.

In other respects than the beauty of its location, Ketchikan is a typical Alaskan town. It has the usual magnificent land-locked harbor entered by an intricate winding channel; the long piers extending far out into the bay; the main street supported on piles, like a cruder and more temporary

Old Government Store (Russian) at Sitka, Alaska.

Venice; the school houses and homes perched on steep hillsides; and, at the back the lofty mountains, covered at the base with oak, birch, maple, and poplar, gradually giving way to pine and fir, then to moss, and lastly to barren rock, with the unmelted snows of immemorial winters lying here and there in crevices, gullies, and hollows. Ketchikan has also its beautiful clear trout-stream overhung by salmon-berry bushes. This fruit is in shape somewhat like the blackberry of lower latitudes and varies in color from salmon pink to bright scarlet. It has a pleasant tart flavor.

The business houses here are for the most part of the type common in small western towns, one story frame buildings with rectangular "false fronts" hiding the gable toward the street. Occasionally there is a building of galvanized iron, simulating granite. The dwellings are, as a rule, small, but built with an eye to comfort; they contain many modern conveniences, and are, almost without exception, lighted by electricity. There are three churches, and a hospital under the care of the Episcopal Church; there is also a

court house and a school house, both well built. The town numbers upwards of two thousand inhabitants, most of whom are there as permanent settlers; and all this growth and development has taken place in this far island within seven years.

In Ketchikan we were shown the baseball diamond, but told that the national game is played there only at low tide, schedules of games being determined by the age of the moon.

As there are no railroads connecting with the outer world, newspapers do not arrive daily, and the occasional visits of steamers are welcome, as these give the residents opportunity, always eagerly grasped, to talk with persons who can tell them of things they wish to know. The residents are very kind about giving information, helping the visitors to see the finest views and warning them against "Alaskan curios made in Connecticut."

Ketchikan is reached on the second day out from Seattle, and on the following day we stopped at the little Indian village of Killisnoo. Here was an atmosphere permeated with "an ancient and fish-like smell" from the dog-salmon drying along the beach. This smell penetrated to the interior of the houses and made such a strong impression on my olfactories that the next day when far to the northward, I fancied I could still smell that town.

Here there was a Russian (i. e., Greek Catholic) church. The priest's family seemed to be the only white persons in the village. They seemed neither especially intelligent nor energetic, nor, so far as we could learn, were they doing much for the Indians.

On the fourth day we reached Douglass and Juneau, the latter lying on the mainland, and the former on an island opposite, the future "twin cities" of Alaska.

On Douglass Island is the great Treadwell gold mine, whose stamp mills we visited, bringing away a confused impression of tremendous noise, and an idea that gold-mining

involves much dealing with mud. We saw some blasting in the "Glory Hole" of the mine; but were not allowed to go down because of the danger of sudden explosions. This was no great disappointment, as there was a sunset to watch over the frowning mountains, and the novel experience of hearing the sunset-gun from a revenue cutter in the harbor fired at half-past nine. After this came the northern twilight, so long that until nearly midnight it was light enough to read on deck, had anyone been so misguided as to wish to read in the face of such scenery. If I lived in Alaska, I am sure I should forget to go to bed at all in summer, and make up for this lapse of memory by hibernating in winter, like the bears.

We stopped at one or two more Indian villages resembling Killisnoo as to their prevailing odor both having large salmon and halibut canneries. In direct contradiction to the ideas put forth by certain travelers, these canneries are extremely neat; and, though some of the Chinese employes were plainly opium users, and doubtless not personally cleanly, this need frighten no one, as the canneries are well ventilated and no one touches the fish with his hands from the time they are speared till the last fragments are soldered into the cans.

From Icy Bay we could see various glaciers glittering between mountains rising sheer from the water's edge to a height of from seven thousand to fifteen thousand feet. We passed by many small icebergs, and bits of floating ice, and came at last, on a glorious July morning, into the harbor of Skaguay.

Here new experiences awaited us. At Skaguay we saw our first team of "huskies." They were harnessed to a little wagon whose wheels were those of two bicycles, and the body a small packing box. A few of the younger and more adventurous members of the company went for drives in these vehicles; but even they did not care to go far, "the conveyance seemed insecure in strength and the team uncertain in temper."

From Skaguay we went over the White Pass and Yukon Railway to Bennett, the northern terminus of the road. From this point connection is made by stage with steamers going down the Yukon to St. Michael's and Nome.

The White Pass and Yukon road is a tremendous piece of engineering. The grade is so steep that, in winding up the hill from Skaguay, the train describes an almost complete circle. For the greater part of the distance, the rails are laid on a shelf cut from the living rock. When work began on these parts of the road, there being no place for the men to stand, they were hung over the side of the mountain by means of ropes passed around their bodies under the arms, and so held while they cut a foothold on the mountain's face. The fact that so much time, money, and energy were expended in building a road which can be used only a few months in each year, gives some idea of the spirit in which men are settling Alaska. For in these days *bona fide* settlers are making their way into the territory. The day of the adventurer is nearly over. Men are going to Alaska now with their wives and families, to build towns and cities with schools and churches, and develop a new civilization in this great Arctic empire. It must be noted, too, that the Alaskan settler is very enthusiastic over his new home, very loyal to all its institutions and enterprises.

After scooping up in our hands and drinking a few drops of clear water from the tiny streams that here form the beginning of the mighty Yukon, gathering some of the unfamiliar mosses and flowers that were growing all about us, and losing our tempers more or less according to individual disposition over the myriads of mosquitos that chanted their exasperating, metallic war-song over the mountainside, we returned to the station.

There was little conversation on the return trip to Skaguay; we were literally overwhelmed by the grandeur of the mountain scenery revealed in new forms and lights at every turn and twist of the road. When we came once

more within view of Skaguay, we rejoiced that, because of the difficulties of the way, the train was obliged to move slowly, and thus we might longer enjoy the view of the towering peaks on one side, the little frontier town in the valley below, and beyond it the land-locked harbor, its waters sparkling and changing from amethyst to emerald under the light of the July sun.

On the return voyage, the steamer cast anchor in Glacier Bay and put out boats to allow all who wished to go for a climb on Davidson Glacier, a "dead" glacier which here dips its nose into salt water. The great Muir glacier, really the "live" end of the glacier of which Davidson is the "dead" extremity, we could see from a distance only, as the channel leading to it was so blocked with ice as to be impassable. Yet it probably afforded more real pleasure than Davidson, whose ice was dirty and dull, while, from the deck of the steamer, the field glasses revealed Muir Glacier eight miles away flashing like a great field of diamonds. The combined length of the two is ninety miles, and from the "live" end, icebergs are continually breaking with a sound as of thunder and falling into the bay, whence they drift southward to be melted in the warm currents of the Pacific.

Perhaps the most interesting places visited on our southward way were Sitka and the island of Metlakahtla. Sitka has the most beautiful of all the attractive harbors on the Alaskan coast. When, after winding through narrow channels and around islands that are, in reality mountain peaks rising sheer from the water, the steamer comes at last into the almost circular harbor, with the city lying along the low shore, and Mt. Edmonton rising stately and serene beyond, the whole scene is like a glimpse of fairy-land; and this impression lasts.

Along the wharf and beside the walls are seated Indian women and girls selling baskets, bead-work, deer's antlers, blankets, moccasins, small totem-poles, woven bark matting, and strangely enough, old willow pattern china, and silver

plating on copper left behind by the Russians. The silver-plated copper utensils are said to be Sheffield ware and are of excellent workmanship.

These Indian women are keen at a bargain and possessed of a lively sense of humor. A lady asked one of them the price of a basket, and the Indian woman, twinkling all over with fun, answered, "*You,* today tlee dollah; tomollow, *Spokane* come; high-toned people, five dollah." The lady promptly bought the basket.

Many of the baskets are of excellent workmanship and beautifully colored. What seem high prices are due to the fact that to make one small basket of a finer grade, a woman must work almost steadily for several weeks, with her hands and the materials under water. The women have learned that connoisseurs are not fond of the aniline dyes, and take pains to tell the tourists that the better grades of baskets are colored with vegetable substances.

The blankets woven of wild grass and goat's hair in white, black, green, and yellow, are interesting rather than beautiful; their prices range from fifty to seventy-five dollars. The patterns are conventional forms of birds and beasts similar to those carved on the totem poles.

Another attractive kind of work is the inlaying of mother-of-pearl, shells, pebbles, and walrus-ivory in flint. Totem poles of small size are made in this way, and bring high prices because of the careful workmanship.

The totem-pole, which seems to have reached its highest development among the Alaskan Indians, is a most fascinating object. It is really the coat of arms of a tribe, clan, or family, the various animal forms carved upon it showing the intermarriages that have taken place from time to time. Very remarkable ones are to be seen at Hawkan, Kasaan village, and Fort Wrangel, as well as a fine group in a glade of the forest near Indian River just outside Sitka. The tallest of the last-mentioned group measures seventy feet in height.

In Sitka is the Sheldon-Jackson Museum of Alaskan products, a very valuable collection. Here also is the school for Indian children founded by the same missionary and still in a flourishing condition.

The Greek Catholic Church, a relic of Russian days, seems like a bit of Oriental Europe set down here in the wilds. It is decorated with many eikons of the saints, in the true Byzantine style, with hands, faces, and feet painted, and draperies of wrought gold, silver, or copper. They cannot be called beautiful but are worth seeing as representing a certain phase in the development of modern art; and the custodian takes pride and pleasure in informing the visitor that their total cost was upwards of thirty thousand dollars.

At Sitka, also, one may meet, if he chance to be at home, the Episcopal Bishop of Alaska, Bishop Rowe. A first casual glance at the Bishop gives the impression of a quiet scholar, who would be much at home in a cathedral close or a college library; but a few minutes conversation reveals the man of affairs, alert, active, keen, seeing the things that need to be done, and bringing them to pass, regardless of time, labor and hardship. It was due to his efforts that Congress in 1905 appropriated $25,000 to survey post-roads and blaze trails for the U. S. mail-carriers. This is a very inadequate provision for communication between various parts of the territory; but it was the entering wedge, inserted by this quiet but efficient gentleman. Bishop Rowe is one of the heroic figures of present day Alaskan history.

At Metlakahtla is another hero-missionary, Father Duncan, deviser and founder of the Indian colony on the island. As the steamer came to her moorings here, the purser said to a group of passengers, "See all you can here, it is one of the most remarkable places in Alaska. Father Duncan has taken hold of things by the right end, and is accomplishing wonders."

More than forty years ago Father Duncan came to British America, as a missionary of the Church of England. Owing to differences between himself and the church board,

—Father Duncan thought it wise to simplify the ritual—he separated from the Church of England, asked and received from the United States Government a grant of the Island of Metlakahtla for his Indian mission, and with several hundred families removed thither. No other white man is allowed to live on the island. Father Duncan contends that the Indian should not be brought into contact with the vices of civilization until he has had an opportunity to acquire its virtues. There are schools here for the boys and the girls, in which industrial training has a large place. A ready market is found for the natural and manufactured products of the island. All the houses have been built by the Indians, and Metlakahtla is the best built town in Alaska. There is a commodious church built entirely by the Indians, and containing a small pipe-organ.

Father Duncan's dream is an Indian state under the American flag. Should the dream be realized and the Indians, after his death, be protected in possession of the island, here is a possible solution of the Indian problem.

After two weeks of pleasant journeying along the coast of this northwestern empire, one lands at Seattle with a strong desire to take the next steamer back, in order to see it all over again and more thoroughly. For an artist, Sitka would be ideal headquarters for a sketching season.

Alaska is as yet only in its early infancy. With the energy and intelligence of its settlers, combined with its matchless scenery and boundless resources, it will inevitably become, and that soon, one of the most important portions of the United States. As for its climate, it is delightful in summer, except for the mosquitos, which are, of course, to be eliminated; while as for winter, loyal Alaskans admit that they have such a season, but they "do not feel the cold."

A Tenderfoot at the Cliff Dwellings of the Mesa Verde

By Eva Mills Anderson

I awoke the morning appointed for our start to "The Cliffs" to hear the rain beating mercilessly against the windows.

"Another exhibition of the sunshiny climate of Colorado," I said to myself. "Of course they won't go."

But promptly at the prescribed time the wagon appeared at the door and I received a new lesson in western indifference to weather conditions. Indeed I've concluded that nothing but death stops a Coloradoan when he wants to go anywhere.

It required only a few moments to get into my divided skirt, don my close fitting jacket, heavy shoes, slouch hat, pack a few necessary articles in a bundle suitable for strapping to my saddle later, and then to climb into the wagon where the driver furnished me a man's rain coat for protection against the storm.

Our party consisted of six people, one man and five women, all but myself having more or less experience in mountain climbing, with the guide and his assistant, who had charge of the saddle and pack horses.

The first fifteen miles of the way from Mancos, the best point for reaching the celebrated cliff dwellings of the Mesa Verde, is made by wagon. The remaining ten miles on horseback.

The wagon road is a steady climb over a plateau bounded by mountains. The road is reasonably good but that morning was very muddy from the falling rain. About an hour after our start the rain ceased and although the sky remained clouded we were able to doff our rain coats and discard our umbrellas.

No one should imagine that these plains and plateaus are without an interest of their own. The mountains are

The Ladies of the Party.

generally timbered heavily up to "timber line." Intervals of barren rocks make a variety in their coloring. The plains are covered with sage brush or greasewood, and broken by deep arroyas. Intermingled with the sage brush are many beautiful flowers. The Indian pink flaunts its ruddy flame at frequent intervals, growing so close to the sage brush that plant appears to be in bloom. The purple vetch trails triumphantly over the low growing shrubs and at times the Mariposa lily, most beautiful and fragile of the lily family, stars the ground with its tender lavender-white blossoms, and the mountain primrose makes the air fragrant with its orange-like perfume.

Myriads of bees are humming their busy songs when the sun again appears while the familiar notes of the meadow lark, the blue bird, the song thrush welcome the clearing sky.

Neither is the ride without incident. Ignacio, the chief of all the Utes, rides up to inquire if the guides have seen some horses which have strayed from the reservation. A slinking, stealthy coyote crosses our path. Num-

Lookout Mountain on the Road to the Mesa Verde.

Cliff Palace, looking South.

The "Balcony House."

"Spruce Tree House."

Opposite Cliff Palace.

berless jack rabbits and cotton tails whisk in and out of sight and entire colonies of prairie dogs pop into view.

We finish our wagon ride by noon and have ravenous appetites for the bountiful luncheon and the hot coffee furnished by the guides. After lunch all necessary articles are packed in the wagon and covered with blankets to be left until our return, as secure as if under lock and key. The horses are brought around. Eight are saddled for the guides and sightseers and two are pack horses, "Paddy" and "Spider."

Spider deserves a paragraph for herself. She is of a dirty white color with a small, long head, and the longest, thinnest neck and legs which ever belonged to any horse in the world. With the yellow canvas pack reaching three or four feet above her shoulders, she resembles a camel much more than a horse. Spider has a mind as well as a physique of her own. Her proper place as a pack animal is at

the tail end of the procession, but Spider will submit to no such indignity. As soon as possible after our start, she rushes past the cortége to the front. We soon learn that when the line becomes disorganized and the horses show unusual excitement the cause is Spider who having fallen behind to nibble bunch grass, is again elbowing, as it were, all the other horses from the train in her effort to regain her place at the head of the procession.

Several of the horses are beautiful animals and it must be confessed the western people ride superbly. My own mount is a buckskin Indian pony, selected rather for her steadiness than her beauty, and I inwardly praise the guide's perspicacity in giving me the "surest footed animal in the outfit." I have seen from afar the lofty range we are to climb and my ears have not been deaf to the remarks about the "trail being mighty slippery."

I wonder if they suspect that I've not been on a horse for—well, it is unnecessary to tell how many years—and have never before ridden cross saddle in my life.

"Just trust Yellow-hammer and she'll take you through all right," encourages the guide, before taking his place at the head of the line.

About half a mile from our camp we descend into a gulley. It is usually dry but now a knee-deep stream is flowing through it. The bank about seventy-five feet high is nearly perpendicular. At the bottom the landing is so narrow, the turn so sharp that but one horse can get in at a time. The animals apparently understand this for not one starts until his predecessor is out of the way. The experienced riders go first. I watch the horses before me hesitate and then go sliding down the descent almost on their bellies. I wish I had taken out an insurance policy for the benefit of my heirs, give Yellow-hammer an encouraging pat, grasp the pommel with both hands, shut my eyes and down we go! In a moment Yellow-hammer is on her feet at the bottom and wading up stream.

Let no one suppose that a mountain trail is one con-

tinuous ascent. It leads down over all kinds of narrow ledges and up over rocky paths. Nothing is ever removed from the way unless it is too big for a horse to climb over and Yellow-hammer steps carefully over fallen tree trunks, circles immense boulders, balances herself on the edge of precipices and canters down natural stairways which make the historic ride of General Putnam seem of no present importance.

But it all brings us to the summit of the range at last where we traverse a long plateau. From here we should see clearly the Montezuma valley, the very southwestern corner of Colorado, and the "four corners" where Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, and Utah come together, the only place in the United States where four states or territories corner, but the rain clouds are gathering below. Indeed we have encountered them on our way up, and now they shut off the view. It seems strange to see the lightning flash and to hear the thunder below us instead of above and we stop our horses to listen as it echoes from peak to peak.

An hour or two of steady trotting and we descend to the rocky plain which heralds the approach of the cañon. The rock is bare and has a honey-combed surface or as if an immense "baking" of huge biscuit had been suddenly petrified. The horses pick their way across it in a gingerly fashion showing far more caution than on the narrowest ledges or steepest gulches over which we have come.

About five o'clock we arrive at "Kelley Cabin," the only cabin in the cañon. It is located on the very brink of Spruce Tree Cañon and from our camp fire we look across the chasm at Spruce Tree House.

We dismount and the ladies have the opportunity to admire masculine dexterity in the cuisine while the guides prepare supper. Both of them are experts in the culinary department. Will any of us ever forget the young loaves of bread presented to us under the name of biscuit, or the broiled ham and fragrant coffee supplemented by the delectable baked beans, fried hominy, jellies, syrups and

sauces? We learned that our stomachs had hitherto unknown capacities for food and realized that "a mountain appetite" was no meaningless term.

After supper we wander around the brink of the cañon, dig for pottery, finding only some broken pieces and a flint arrow head, and watch the horses being taken to their feeding ground. Each one of them has a heavy cow bell and they are tied together by ropes which lead from the neck of one to the tail of the next. When they reach their pasture they will be hobbled and turned loose for the night. The sound of the bells dwindles from an inharmonious clangor to a faint tinkle and the gathering darkness warns us to return to camp.

The men have built a blazing fire of fragrant cedar and piñon logs which defies the heavy mist and the evening is spent as in all camps from the Atlantic to the Pacific, in singing songs and telling stories.

It is barely daylight when we are awakened by the clanging of the bells as the horses are being brought back. We dress hastily but do not wash our faces. It is not good form to put water on the face while traveling in this country, instead one applies another coat of grease. Notwithstanding this precaution and the cloudy weather some of us return with burned faces from which the skin peels afterward, swollen eyes, and parched, cracked lips.

Breakfast is eaten as speedily as possible and we mount to ride as far as we can toward the first ruin we are to visit, Balcony House. After a ride of some miles we dismount, the rest of the way having to be made on foot.

How we climb! How many times we make our way along narrow ledges where we seek in vain for something on the mountain wall to cling to, not daring to even glance down the precipice into the valley below. We pass several ruins on our way, all of them, possibly remnants of dwellings once as important as that we are going to see, but the sandstone of which the mountains are built has either crumbled away or been precipitated suddenly by some natural

convulsion, carrying with it the major part of the dwelling. Suddenly we come to one of the difficult places of the trail and see before us "the greased pole." This is an old tree trunk with the limbs chopped off so as to leave projections of four or five inches. It stands on a ledge where we barely have foot room and leads to another ledge much higher up. It is white and smooth as if sandpapered, from the action of the wind and weather. For a distance of several feet from the bottom there are no projections. The guides "boost" us until we can get a footing, after which we climb to the top. It is quite in order on reaching the upper ledge to take a rest, "and view the landscape o'er."

Opposite us are the rocky heights of the other side of the cañon, many a small dwelling sheltering itself in security under their beetling brows, not possible to reach either by "greased pole" or swinging rope. Below—we hardly dare look below—but we know there are the precipitous mountain sides, the rocky ledges, and the yawning valley studded with gigantic pinnacles, domes, and fortresses.

After breathing awhile we pursue our path until we are confronted by "the rope." Nearly every one hesitates but the guides encourage us and the more intrepid ones make the first attempts. The rope is tied to a cedar tree projecting from a crevice far above us. One guide puts himself at the top and the other at the bottom and we climb by means of the rope and small hollows chipped in the precipitous wall. The difficulty is increased by the necessity of making a turn before a footing can be obtained on the shaly incline at the top of the climb.

After this difficulty is surmounted a short walk brings us to Balcony House, so named from a kind of balcony or porch there is, or rather was, in front.

This house contains ninety-seven rooms or apartments, some of them incredibly small and dark. We creep and crawl in getting from one to another. Many of these apartments must have been granaries, corn husks and cobs being found in them in abundance. There are several estufas or

ceremonial chambers, each with a fire pot in the center, connecting with a chimney. It is said that much pottery was found in these, but all these dwellings have been absolutely rifled of everything portable. Pottery, mummies, wall pictures, relics of every kind have been made merchandise of by those who visited these ruins only to sack them. Not only were the things taken out but walls which hindered the search were ruthlessly torn down so that it is difficult to tell what is the work of time and what that of the iconoclast.

These buildings are all high in front and extend under the mountain to a narrow angle at the back, the natural rock forming the roof. The front is now unroofed but it may have sometime been covered by the overhanging rock. The ceilings are black with smoke. The walls are built of rather small rudely hewn stones mostly rectangular, put together with a kind of adobe mortar in which fragments of pottery are sometimes embedded. The doorways or what seem to be such, are low and narrow. The windows are various shapes, a few circular or nearly so, most of them rectangular. These openings frequently are bordered by a frame of wattled twigs, especially across the top. Apparently when the builder had no stone long enough to reach from side to side of the opening he laid the twigs and then put stones on them.

Poles, sometimes hewn on the sides, reach from wall to wall of the higher rooms, indicating upper stories, but no floors now exist. We wander long in these apartments, often pursuing some course, climbing over walls, crawling through narrow openings only, at last, to come up against a blank wall with no recourse but to retrace our path.

Then comes the descent.

As before the guides place themselves at the top and bottom of the rope which if not held in would swing over the precipice. For one moment as I linger at the shelving place where we have to crawl to the rope I look down. The world swims; then gets black before my eyes. I sharply

pull myself together and slide down making again that awkward turn.

"Hang onto the rope, hang onto the rope," calls the guide from above.

"Hang onto the rope, hang onto the rope," echoes his assistant at the foot.

Even there suspended in mid-air I smile at their unnecessary insistence. I wouldn't let go of that rope for all the wealth of Standard Oil.

Every one makes the descent safely. It is probably not as dangerous or difficult as it seems. The government which has added this cañon to the national parks of the country has been asked to build an iron stairway here, so the rope may soon be a thing of the past.

The greased pole is easier to descend than to climb, though the guide says that he once had to argue and plead an hour and a half with a woman before he could get her to come down. It looks from the top as if there were no room to land but there is.

We take our way from here quite merrily to the Cliff Palace, the trail to which we passed on our way to Balcony House. Only one very bad climb confronts us here. It is called "Fat Man's Misery." It is a very narrow, steep cleft in the rocks with a long space at the bottom up which we have to be boosted and then climb the best way we can to the top by means of irregular benches at long intervals and such grip as we can get on the narrow walls. We, at least, have a wall of rock on both sides of us. The "Misery" is far worse to come down. I shall not soon forget the awkward descent nor the lingering embrace I gave the guide who caught me at the last jump before I could regain my footing.

If the design of these dwellings was that of a fortress into which the builders might retreat in time of war, as some suppose, they are admirably situated. It would not need the three hundred of the pass at Thermopylae or even the force of assistants which Horatius had at the bridge to

command the ascent of the "greased pole" or "Fat Man's Misery."

Cliff Palace is said to be the largest cliff dwelling yet found. It has one hundred and forty-seven rooms, many of them ludicrously small. There is one large apartment, however, in which several hundred people might easily congregate. It differs from Balcony House, which presents a straight up and down exterior wall, in having had several tower-like structures, one of which is especially prominent and tolerably well preserved. The roof is blackened by smoke. There are fine springs in the dwelling affording excellent water. This "palace" has nine estufas. One of the central and large ones has a sort of stone bench before the fire-place which suggests an altar. In the corner of one of the dark, almost inaccessible rooms we found a small structure, four or five feet in each dimension with a small door at the bottom and another on top. It suggested equally a box stove and a dog kennel. Plenty of corn husks and cobs are found in certain rooms.

On one of the walls there is some painting. It forms a kind of frieze extending across one wall and around the corners upon the adjacent walls as far as they still exist. The lower part of the frieze and the figures are in a dull red. The surface above them white. The small projections between the high points are generally ten in number.

We reached "Kelley Cabin" about two o'clock entirely ready for the excellent dinner which the guides quickly prepared.

After dinner and resting we descended the Spruce Tree Cañon. This is so named because a large spruce tree, thirty or more inches in diameter, grew upon the wall in such a manner as to show that the wall must have been older than the tree. It was felled to get a cross section to show at the Chicago Exposition and the enormously long trunk lying down the side of the cañon forms the path by which we climb.

Spruce Tree House is easy to reach and is as inter-

esting as Balcony House. There is a remnant of red coloring upon one of the walls but no figures remain if there ever were any. The general arrangement is like the ruins already described but it is the smallest of the three. There is an excellent spring in the cañon which is the only source of water supply for tourists during the dry season. The horses have to be driven down here at such times, over a rocky trail which even the guides admitted "was terrible for the beasts."

Though I have described but three cliff dwellings the whole region is studded with them. We pass them on our way. We ride over their ruins on the trail, we discern them in numberless places, sometimes accessible, sometimes not. The guides now steadily discourage any attempt to find relics if any may be left, as being contrary to government regulations.

It is expected the government will build a new road and a way has been outlined but not surveyed, which will make the trip both shorter and easier. An up-to-date hotel to take the place of Kelley Cabin is also one of the possibilities of the future, and it is not improbable the ascent may yet be made in a touring car with obsequious porters and landlords to welcome the coming guest. When that time comes I shall be glad I made my visit before all the romance was taken out of the trip.

We were fortunate in the time of our visit for the air was cool and we had plenty of water. In July and August when most tourists come, the weather is hot and there is scarcity of water, which conditions must make the trip far less enjoyable.

Our homeward journey revealed to us the beautiful Montezuma Valley stretching miles and miles to our left. The snow-capped San Miguel range bounds it upon the north while to the west as far as the eye can reach are the Blue Mountains of Utah. It is a matchless panorama of mountain and valley threaded by narrow lines of green and dotted by homes of hardy ranchmen.

The Eries

By Obed Edson

THE waters of Lake Erie form the boundary between the most powerful of nations. Issuing forth they pour over the mightiest of cataracts, and finally debouch into the ocean through one of the most majestic of rivers. Its Indian name, and the aboriginal memories that have gathered around it, will not be the least to give it interest in the future. It was long after the discovery of America, before its name, and the name of the Indian tribes dwelling beyond the Alleghenies, and around the Great Lakes became known to Europeans. Now and then a bronzed and hardy explorer, fresh from the great forests, would bring news of some before unknown distant tribe. From these swarthy woodsmen, and from missionaries of the Catholic Faith, who had early reared the Cross in the wilds of Canada, white men first learned of a warlike people dwelling southeast of Lake Erie, who were known in their own tongue as the Eries; in that of the Senecas as the Je-go-sa-sa, words bearing the same import, meaning People of the Cat, said to be applied to them because of the great number, size, and beauty of the wild cats inhabiting their country. Whatever species of the cat family was meant, their furs furnished them warm robes for winter. The wild cat, raccoon, and rattlesnake infest some parts of that region even to this day. The wolf, bear, and catamount have scarcely taken their leave, and now in the very heart of that country, are the classic groves of the Chautauqua Assembly, so lately the home of the wild cat and savage, where thousands annually gather to listen to orators and philosophers from all parts of the world, and from whence has sprung a system of moral and intellectual culture of such practical importance to humanity, that its fame and benefits extend throughout our own even to other continents.

Such was the vigor and character of the People of the Cat that they impressed their name upon Lake Erie,

then a sailless waste bordered by a vast and lonely wilderness, now the heart of a domain as wide and populous as a State of Europe. This band of almost forgotten barbarians scarcely appeared on the scene than they vanished from sight. From nearly the same tongues that first told of their existence, we learn of the dire calamity that at last befel them, how after a fierce struggle with a powerful foe, their warriors were slain or burned at the stake; their women and children driven from their corn fields into the gloomy forests to perish; their towns destroyed or gone to decay, and their extensive but rudely cultivated fields again covered by a forest growth. No vestiges of them as a people remain but their fading embankments, the ashes of their fireplaces, their rude implements of stone and the crumbling bones of their dead, unearthed from shallow sepulchers by the plow. Their brave but savage deeds in defense of home and kindred, like those of many a people since the human race began, remain unhonored and forgotten, and now the name they gave to the great lake is nearly all that is left to commemorate them.

That the story of their downfall may be fully understood, a brief account should be given of the people who then inhabited the interminable forests around the Great Lakes. When Europeans first acquired a knowledge of the interior of the continent, surrounded by numerous distinct and wandering Algonquin tribes, all speaking in a similar tongue, they found several superior and more stationary Indian nations, known as the Huron-Iroquois, inhabiting a part of Ontario, New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio. Although wide forests extended between their villages, their domains adjoined. They spoke in the same generic tongue, sometimes known as the Wyandot. This circumstance and the similarity of their customs and other characteristics, has led to the belief that once, not very long ago, they were one and the same people.

The oldest it is said, and in many respects the most remarkable of these nations, were the Hurons or Wyandots.

They dwelt in what is now Simcoe County, Canada-West, on the shores of Georgian Bay, where with a rude tillage, they cultivated the soil, their fields of waving corn, of beans, pumpkins, sunflowers, tobacco, and hemp covering an extensive tract, sufficient to furnish sustenance for over thirty villages inhabited by twenty thousand people. Although fiercely savage and cruel in war, in peace they lived in such friendship and harmony that Christian people might imitate them with profit. Two days' journey west of this people towards Lake Huron, were the Tionontates (Petun) or Tobacco nation, noted for the excellent tobacco which they raised and sold. They were closely allied to the Hurons, whom they resembled in customs and language. In Canada-West along the northern shore of Lake Erie, and extending some distance eastward across the Niagara into New York, were towns of the Attiwandaronks or neutral nation, so called because in the wars between the Iroquois and Hurons they remained at peace with both parties.

But the best known, and most famous people of this lineage were called Iroquois by the French. They were composed of separate and independent tribes, known to the English as the Five Nations. They dwelt in villages, along the streams and picturesque lakes of central New York. They were united for offensive and defensive purposes in a remarkable compact, known to themselves as the Kan-on-si-on-ni, or League of the United Households, and by the Europeans as the League of the Iroquois. This compact was the creation of Hiawatha, not the Hiawatha of Longfellow, but a veritable Indian personage of the Onondaga nation, the wisest of his people. Inspired by a humanity far in advance of his race and time, even of our time and race, he sought to bind all savage tribes in bonds of universal peace. Such was his ability and strength of purpose that he succeeded in impressing upon these five wild savage tribes the folly of war, and the wisdom exemplified by that ancient fable of the old man, his sons, and the bundle of sticks.

The Confederacy of Hiawatha was held together by a two-fold tie. Each nation was subdivided into tribes. Each tribe bore the name of some bird or animal, corresponding in name with a tribe of each of the other nations of the compact. Relationship by blood was supposed to exist between the members of tribes having the same name, so near as to prohibit intermarriage, so that besides the bonds of a political union, they were held together by the stronger cross-ties of kinship. Thus with the nation for the warp, and the tribe for the woof, these forest artists wove a fabric of such firm texture that when the Confederacy was rent asunder by the American Revolution, and moved from its ancient seats in central New York; one fragment in Canada, and the other in the States, the shreds clung with a remarkable tenacity to the old customs of the Confederacy.

The superiority of the political and social organization of the Iroquois made them the greatest of conquerors. Notwithstanding that the scheme of Hiawatha was inspired by benevolence, and its purpose was peace, the result was paradoxical. The wise compact that gave the Iroquois peace also made them strong. Tempted by their strength, they waged war against other nations. They became a terror to the weaker Indian tribes, were disliked by the Delawares, and hated by nations of their kindred, and finally regarded as the Ishmaelites of the forest.

South of the Iroquois, along the Susquehanna, in Pennsylvania, dwelt the Andastes, more recently known as the Conestogas, a brave and resolute people of the Huron-Iroquois family. In western New York, wedged in between the neutrals, the Eries, and the Iroquois, was a kindred, but small and feeble people, called the Wenrohronons. Fear of their powerful and aggressive neighbors caused them in 1639 to abandon their homes, and travel through the wilderness with their women, children, and household goods to the Land of the Hurons, where they were received quite as kindly as if the Hurons had been a Christian people.

It now remains to speak of the Eries, one of the most

important, perhaps the oldest, but least known of the Huron-Iroquois family. They dwelt south of Lake Erie, and at the time of their overthrow so distant from civilized people that no Europeans had ever visited them, unless it was that remarkable explorer Stephen Brulé. We have vague accounts of their wars with enemies west of them, by whom they were slowly forced eastward along the southern shore of Lake Erie, and inwards towards the Allegheny River where they had frequent wars with the Iroquois, and where we at last find them. Before they moved eastward they had hovered long, we know not how long, between the southern shore of Lake Erie and the domain of the Mound Builders of Ohio the mysterious authors of those colossal and symmetrical earthworks that bear such evidence of ancient culture as to lead to the belief by some that they were the work of a vanished race. The better opinion is, however, that they were the work of the American Indians, who had passed beyond a state of savagery and were far advanced in the arts of barbaric life. The remains of the Mound Builders extend northward, diminishing steadily in magnitude and symmetry, and finally fade off so regularly into the rude earthworks of the Eries in northern Ohio, as to make it difficult to determine where the dividing line is between them.

There is reason to believe that the Mound Builders were in possession of their domain at a comparatively recent time, notwithstanding the very ancient date given them by early writers. The Huron-Iroquois, to which the Eries belonged, have a well-known tradition that long ago the Emperor of a Great People, once built many forts which extended northward almost to Lake Erie. That the tribes of the north who were skilled in the use of the bow and arrow, and able to endure hardships better than their sedentary enemy, waged war upon and conquered them. The Leni Lenape or Delawares, a powerful and afterwards rival nation, who spoke in the Algonquin tongue, had a concurrent and well defined tradition that their ancestors emigrated from the north-

west, united with the Huron-Iroquois, and with them waged war upon a powerful people east of the Mississippi, which with great slaughter lasted a hundred years; that the latter were vanquished and compelled to flee down that river. Their people called themselves Alligewi. The Allegheny River and mountains bordered their domain on the west, and were indubitably named after them. The river was known to the Delawares as the Alligewi Sipu or river of the Alligewi, from which the word Allegheny is derived, nearly the oldest of Indian names. According to these traditions, and other evidences, the Delawares slowly pursued their journey eastward until they reached the sea. The Huron-Iroquois paused for awhile around the Great Lakes, then resumed their hegira eastward to the St. Lawrence, and afterwards like a refluent wave, turned back to the Great Lakes where they were early found by Europeans. Whether a part of the conquering Huron-Iroquois races, ancestors of early tribes dwelling south of Lake Erie, including the Eries and possibly the Senecas, lingered near the old battle ground after the war was done, is a question yet to be answered. We have at least reason to believe that the Eries were an old people, and long occupied the region south of Lake Erie. As early as 1640, Father Bagueneau informs us that "These People of the Cat have a number of stationary villages, for they till the soil, and speak the same language as the Hurons."

In 1654, when war was commenced against them by the Iroquois, they possessed more villages, and had more people than the confederate tribes together. The league of the Iroquois was formed a little before the discovery of America by Columbus. The Eries must then have been an old established nation. But it was long ago that the Alligewi held sway in the valleys of the Sciotos, Miami, and Muskingum, and we but dimly see their shadowy forms through the mists of the past. It is estimated that a thousand years has elapsed since their overthrow. Then Alfred the Great ruled in England and waged war against the

Danes. That the existence of the Alligewi continued to so late a date, and the Eries, or the people from whom they sprung began their existence so early as to make them a contemporaneous people we can not affirm. Yet we find rude defensive earthworks thickly strewn over the country of the Eries, while to the north and east of their region such earthworks but sparsely exist. Is it not possible that the ancestors of the Erie race learned the lesson of their construction from their ancient neighbors? What arts they borrowed from their vanquished foes the graves of the Eries may sometime tell.

It has now been more than two hundred and fifty years since the fires of the Eries were put out. White men came only in season to see their expiring embers, as it is possible that the ancestors of the Eries witnessed the closing scene in the history of their mysterious predecessors. But let us turn from that part of our subject that affords ground for conjecture merely to that established by authentic history.

Nearly three centuries ago, in 1609, and again in 1615, the French, and their allies, the Hurons, lead by Champlain, invaded the country of the Iroquois, and made an unprovoked attack upon them, killing many of their people upon the shore of Lake Champlain. The Iroquois at that time were unfamiliar with the use of firearms, and had never committed any offense against white men. These early aggressions made the Iroquois long a lurking inveterate foe of the French, and at last brought a fearful vengeance upon the Hurons. In the summer of 1648, about fourteen years after the French Jesuits had established a mission among the Hurons, the Iroquois stealthily entered Huron country and surprised their villages on the Georgian Bay. In the autumn of the next year, one thousand Iroquois warriors again invaded the country of the Hurons. A desperate battle ensued in which the Hurons were defeated and utterly destroyed.

In 1650 and 1651, the Iroquois waged war upon the

Neutrals, who dwelt along the northern shore of Lake Erie, assaulted and took their chief towns, committing prodigious slaughter, and the Neutrals, like the Hurons, were wiped out as a nation.

Now all that was left in this western wilderness of the Huron-Iroquois nations for the Iroquois to conquer was the Eries. The numbers, courage, and skill of the latter in war filled the Iroquois with fear. The Jesuits inform us that although the Eries had no firearms they fought like Frenchmen; bravely maintaining the first fire they would fall upon the enemy, notwithstanding these were armed with muskets, with a hailstorm of poisoned arrows, which they would discharge eight or ten times before a musket could be reloaded. Their arrows were probably poisoned after the manner of some Indian tribes of the west with the virus of the rattlesnake which infested their country. The unity of action, the vigor, and ferocity of the Iroquois at the same time inspired the Eries with dread, and both nations were impelled to bury the hatchet, so that in 1653, thirty ambassadors were sent by the Eries to the chief village of the Senecas to confirm a treaty of peace between the two nations. While there a Seneca was killed by an Erie, probably in a personal quarrel. The Senecas rose, and murdered all the ambassadors but five, who escaped; war followed. One party of Eries cut to pieces a band of eighty Iroquois; another captured and burned a Seneca village, and still another party penetrated almost to the gate of a principal village of the Senecas, surprised and captured Anneneras, an Onondaga chief, one of their greatest captains. He was taken to an Erie village to be burned. His captors convinced that it would be more politic to spare his life, assigned him to a sister of one of the murdered ambassadors who might dispose of him as she should choose according to an Indian custom. To their great surprise and regret she required that he be burned at the stake. The chief of the Eries remonstrated, showing her the gravity of the situation; that the death of so noted a chief would be

likely to involve them in a dangerous war, but no persuasions could dissuade this cruel woman from her purpose, and the captive was burned alive. Somewhere among the hills, in the green woods, it is possible, of Chautauqua, this tragic scene occurred, with all the horrors that a female fury could devise. Anneneras warned his tormentors before he expired that his people were being burned in his person, and that his death would be fearfully avenged, a warning that proved prophetic.

This great indignity fired the hearts of the Iroquois. Father Simeon Le Moyne, a French Jesuit, visited Onondontate, the chief village of the Onondagas, situated in what is now Onondaga county, New York, in August, 1654, and witnessed the preparations of the Iroquois for this war. Eighteen hundred warriors gathered from the four western nations of the Confederacy, invaded the country of the Eries. News of their arrival spread like wildfire. The Eries were taken by surprise. They abandoned their villages and dwellings and fled into the furthermost forests. The Iroquois started in pursuit, burning all the Eries left behind. After five days' flight the Eries intrenched themselves as well as they could in a fort of wood. The Iroquois drew near. One of their two head chiefs, a young man, had been baptized by Le Moyne in the Christian faith, and named Jean Baptiste. He was superior, mentally and morally, to his people. He tried to induce the Eries to capitulate and thus save their lives, saying to them: "The Master of Life fights with us, and you will be ruined if you resist." The Eries derisively replied: "Who is this Master of our Lives? We acknowledge no Master but our arms and our tomahawks," a pagan answer but of the Spartan type, as worthy of commemoration as if it had come from the lips of a Greek. The palisades were at once assailed on all sides, but the defense was as spirited as the attack. The combat was long and desperate. Great courage was displayed on both sides. The Iroquois made every effort to carry the place by storm, but in vain. They were killed

by the poisoned arrows of the Eries as fast as they advanced. At last they hit upon the plan of raising their canoes as shields, until they should reach the foot of the palisades, and then as ladders for surmounting it. This boldness astonished the Eries, but it was chiefly because they were nearly out of munitions of war, with which they had been poorly provided, that they fled from the fort. This was their fatal error, and caused their complete defeat. Great carnage followed. The woods were stained with the blood of women and children. Murder was everywhere. The Senecas have a tradition that after the battle the forest was lighted by more than a thousand fires at each of which an Erie was burning at the stake.

The Jesuit Duquesne informs us that the Iroquois on their part did not escape heavy losses in the fight, so great indeed, that they were obliged to remain in the country of the Eries two months burying their dead and caring for their wounded.

Where in the wilderness the battle was fought is undetermined. From the presence and use that was made of canoes, we are led to infer that it took place near some of the waters of western New York or Pennsylvania navigable for canoes. It is possible that it occurred near the shores of Chautauqua Lake. We have not the evidence at present, however, to justify us in such a conclusion.

The ferocity of the Indian in time of war was appalling. With remorseless cruelty he burned prisoners at the stake, and murdered women and children in the most inhuman manner. Yet in times of peace, the normal state of the savage as well as the civilized man, no people were more mild and generous; none more kind of heart than he. The Jesuit L'allemant, who lived with them when they were in their most savage state, and witnessed their prize contests of physical prowess and skill, declares that such was their moderation, fairness and courtesy toward each other, even while contending for victory, that one who witnessed them would never have thought he was in the midst

of barbarians. The Jesuits who were most familiar with the untamed savage pronounced them superior to the French and Italian peasants for brightness of parts and mental powers. The broad and just, even merciful, sentiments so often expressed by their orators, attest their native ability and fairness of character. Le Moyne who visited the Iroquois on Onondaga in 1654, says that while listening to their orations delivered with such decorum, and in such becoming and elevated language "One could not be persuaded that they issued from the lips of men called savages."

With such extremes of character, so much good, and so much evil in the same person, a Dr. Jekyl and a Mr. Hyde stalked the forest in the form of every Indian. It is the love of knowledge, of social order, of culture, and the temperate air of civilization that cool the fiercer passions and tame the savage beast, but appear to chill the milder virtues. Avarice, selfishness, and all the evils that they breed, and an army of other sins, unknown to the Indian seem to follow in the wake of civilization. Human hearts are essentially the same. There is less difference between the white and red man than appears at first. While the cruelties that we have described were being committed in the forests of America by untaught savages, Oliver Cromwell governed in England. During his rule and in the period following while the British Islands were enjoying the benefits of the Gospel, there were burnings at the stake, stretchings upon the rack, and tortures of mind and body, inflicted by, and also without, the authority of law, more inhuman than savages could devise. Civilized men and savages are alike subject to the conditions of the period in which they live. The Indian represented an earlier stage in the progress of the human race, as the white man did at a time before. He conformed to the logic of his simpler nature—lived according to older and dimmer lights, and did his duty as it seemed to him.

"He was fresher from the hand
That formed of earth the human face
And to the elements did stand
In nearer kindred, than our race."

With the defeat of the Eries the war was not ended. The Iroquois made other invasions, and the contest was continued with an aftermath of murders, burnings at the stake, and like savage atrocities. Finally worn and exhausted by the repeated incursions of their foes, their warriors slain, their women and children starving in the forests, the Eries succumbed to their fate. Of those who escaped death some joined other tribes; some that had been made prisoners, strange as it may seem, voluntarily joined the Iroquois, and according to Iroquois custom were adopted by them, and all animosity between conquered and conquerors ceased. And now in the veins of many a Seneca flows the blood of an Erie ancestor. Such was the way in which savages ameliorated the cruelties of war, and humanity in a measure asserted itself.

The defeat of the Eries in this war was not due to their inferiority in courage, or lack of other warlike virtues, but to the advantage that a stealthy invading foe has over a scattered and unprepared people, with women and children, old and infirm to protect, with only such weak defenses as a primitive people could construct. The Iroquois had also the advantage of an intense patriotism, discipline, and unity of purpose, the outgrowth of that rare piece of Indian statesmanship, the "League of the United Households," which gave them superiority over all other Indian nations, and enabled them to hold every inch of their domain against the encroachments of their powerful English, French, and Dutch neighbors for more than a century. The organization of the Kan-on-si-on-ni was a long step towards civilization. It led to the cultivation of some of the highest arts,—genuine oratory, practical statesmanship, so far as it was needful for a savage community, and established a permanent peace among a kindred people. Had not the white man through his numbers, and superior advantages, been able finally to

overthrow the Confederacy, we know not to what intellectual even moral elevation, it might in time have attained.

From the scant information that has come down to us, it would seem that the country of the Eries at the time of their extinction, occupied a portion of the territory between the Allegheny River and Lake Erie, its eastern limits being a line drawn from near the Eighteen Mile Creek, not far from Buffalo, southerly to a point a little distance west of the famous oil spring near Cuba, Allegheny county, New York. To the southwest it was bounded by a line extending from near Pittsburg as far west, possibly, as Cleveland.

During the years that La Salle was making his explorations in the valley of the Mississippi, a young Frenchman, Jean Baptiste Lois Franquelin, was in Quebec making a record of La Salle's explorations with a view of embodying them in maps for the information of the civilized world, then deeply interested in new discoveries. Upon his celebrated map, published in 1684, Lake Erie was called as now, "Lake Erie." On an earlier map, it is written in French, "Lake Chat," meaning Lake of the Cat. The Allegheny River was called "Ohio." Five distinct collections of villages are represented as being scattered along its west side, from its mouth towards its sources. To each collection is given a name, with the number of its villages, all of which are marked as destroyed. The most northern collection of these town sites is called Ken-tain-to-na-go, 19 *v.* (villages) *de fruite,* and is represented as situated on the upper waters of the river. A little distance to the southwest are marked on the map the sites of two other destroyed towns there called Oniasonthe or Oniasonke. They are supposed to have been situated on the shore of Chautauqua Lake at or near where Long Point and Bemus Point jut into it. The word Oniasonke is believed to mean the "Narrows," or the "narrowing place" from "oniasa," a neck or throat. The conquerors, the Senecas, succeeded to the possession of these sites. The earliest white settlers, a century and a half later, found at Bemus

Point the more recent remains of habitations of the Senecas, built it is probable on the old sites of the Eries, There were then existing the cleared fields of the Senecas where grass and wild plum trees were growing, old corn hills, and even potatoes, that had propagated from year to year. Similar evidences of a Seneca, and also of an Erie occupation were observed at Greenhurst, and at other places along the lake.

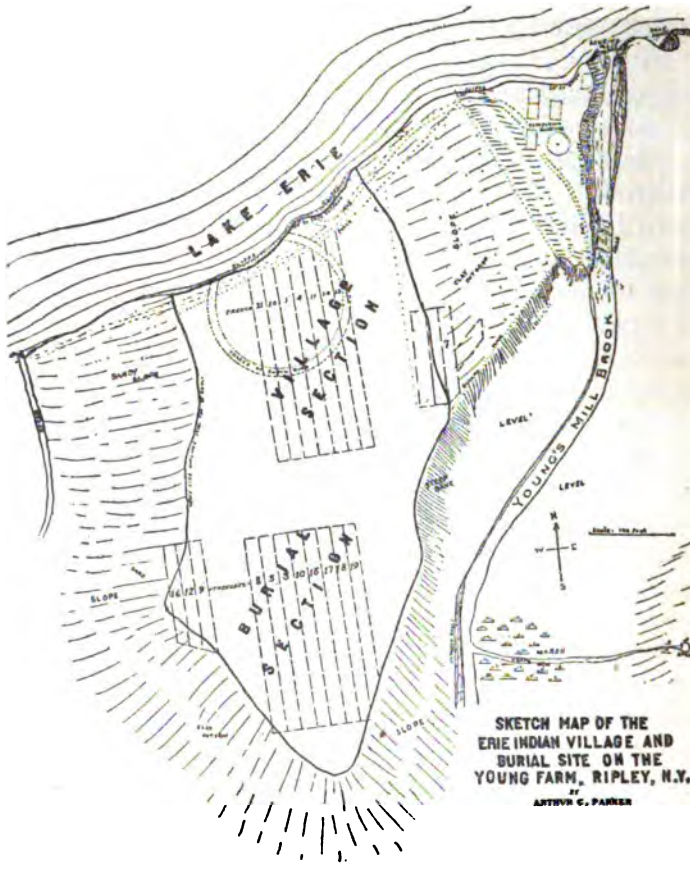
The definite description and location of these villages, given by this old French map, affords evidence that white men had visited this region, and had communicated information concerning it, to its author, before 1684. It was in 1669, or 1670,—but fifteen years after the destruction of the Eries, that La Salle made his first voyage of discovery down the Ohio. The route by which he traveled has been long in doubt. It is more than probable that he journeyed from Canada by the way of the Chautauqua Lake portage, and thence down the Allegheny and the Ohio, and that he saw on his way the sites of these ruined villages, and deserted fields of the Eries. At that time there must have remained many evidences of the great calamity that had so recently befallen them, abandoned corn fields grown up in briars and bushes, fallen and decaying palisades—sites of their dwelling places, then overrun by nettles and fire weed, and now and then amid wood-flowers and forest vendure, the yellow bones of a murdered Erie. These pioneers of pioneers, La Salle and his companions, may have been the only white men that beheld the extinguished brands of their household fires, and witnessed the last scene in their history.

The graves of the Eries, the sites of their villages, and the earth works that may have enclosed villages, as we actually find them at the present time, more precisely mark their location than can the map of Franquelin. In the valleys of the Allegheny, Cassadaga, Conewango, French Creek, around Chautauqua Lake, along the shores of Lake Erie, are scattered the evidences of their long possession. In Chautauqua county, New York, alone, there were not less

than thirty circular earthworks when the first white settler came. Besides the ordinary burial places, there were ossuaries where there had been a general burial of the dead. In 1887, in the Town of Gerry, one of these charnal places was opened in the presence of the writer and the bones of more than fifty persons exhumed. In the very heart of the Chautauqua Assembly Grounds was an Indian burial place. There is scarcely a farm in the county that an old ash heap, ancient weapon, implement, or other relic of primitive occupation, has not been found.

In 1894, while workmen were excavating a cellar in the grounds of the Chautauqua Institution, beneath the cottage of Miss Eddy, near the shore of the lake, at the intersection of Preston Avenue and the Promenade, a burial place of the Eries was discovered, and eight or ten skeletons exhumed that had been buried three feet below the surface. They were carefully examined by Rev. H. H. Moore. Several of the skulls were found to be of a good intellectual cast; others were inferior. Not many rods away, on the lower side of the old Auditorium at Chautauqua, Rev. J. E. Chapin exhumed a well-defined skeleton. Around these sepulchers were doubtless the habitations of this people. Now, at the Chautauqua Assembly Grounds, the most eminent moral and intellectual teachers of the country gather annually where but a little while ago was the home of a people who had never seen or even heard of civilized men, whose graves remind us of a savagery more primitive than now exists in the remotest corner of the earth. The Temple devoted to these distinguished educators, rests almost upon their graves. Other burial places and mounds of the Eries are strewn around the lake. Near Whitney's Landing were two conspicuous mounds. Near Stedman, about two and one-half miles in a southwesterly direction from the Assembly Grounds, an ancient charnal place or ossuary was opened in 1867, and the bones of twenty-five to fifty persons, it is estimated, were disinterred.

It was a custom of the Huron-Iroquois nations to give


LAKE ERIE
SLOPE
SLOPE
SLOPE
SLOPE
LEVEL
LEVEL
YOUNG'S MILL BROOK
SKETCH MAP OF THE
ERIE INDIAN VILLAGE AND
BURIAL SITE ON THE
YOUNG FARM, RIPLEY, N.Y.
BY
ARTHUR C. PARKER

Erie Burial Pit.

their dead a temporary burial, sometimes upon a scaffold and sometimes in the earth. At intervals of ten or twelve years they gathered their dead, removed the flesh remaining on the bones, and buried them in one grave with great ceremonies participated in by all the nation. The Jesuit Brabeuf witnessed and described one of these funeral ceremonies among the Hurons. "They marched," he says, "from their different villages, through the dark and tangled forests, to the place of burial at Ossossane, bearing the bones of their recent dead upon litters, chanting wild dirges as they filed along the forest trails." He describes the great concourse assembled at the place appointed for their burial: the houses filled to overflowing with savage mourners, the countless camp-fires, the funeral games, and the weird scene when they cast their funeral gifts and the bones of their ancestors and kinsmen in a hideous shower into a common grave.

The Huron-Iroquois had great affection for their dead.

Erie Burial Pit.

Photograph by H. C. Parker.

They believed in the immortality of the soul. Parkman says:

"From this hour [that of their final burial, to them a general resurrection] they believed that the immortality of the soul began. They took wing as some affirmed, in the shape of pigeons, while the greater number declared that they journeyed on foot and in their own likenesses to the Land of Shades, bearing with them the ghosts of wampum belts, beaver skins, bows and arrows, pipes, kettles, beads, and rings, buried with them in a common grave." Brabeuf says they believed: "As spirits of the old and children are too feeble for the march to the Land of Shades, they were forced to stay behind lingering near their earthly villages, where the living often hear the shutting of their invisible doors, and the weak voices of their disembodied children, driving birds from their corn fields."

This remarkable inspiration of untutored savages was a belief that had existed among them before civilization, or the light of Christian religion had reached their dark forests.*

*See further Edson's "History of Chautauqua County," published in 1894, pages 43 to 58.

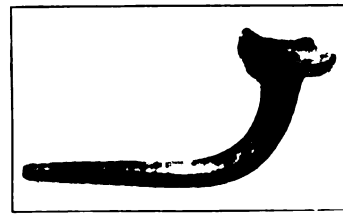
Ossuary containing fourteen Skeletons. Reburied in Pile after Huron Custom.

Surveys and maps have been made of the principal earthworks. Some of them were exhibited by the writer at the Pan-American Exposition, in Buffalo, in 1901. Often mounds have been excavated by archeologists and others. The Peabody Institute of Boston has made a scientific examination of some that exist along the Cattaraugus Creek. In the Town of Ripley, Chautauqua county, New York, from a conspicuous and symmetrical hill, that terminates in a bold bluff on the shore of the great lake to which the Eries gave their name, a fine and extensive view may be had of its waters which there, to the eye, seen as limitless as the ocean itself. Upon the nearly level surface of this hill, are the remains of an ancient village and burial place. During the summer of 1906, Mr. Arthur C. Parker, New York State Archaeologist, a kinsman of Gen. Eli Parker, was engaged in a scientific inspection of this old village site

Pitcher-shaped Erie Pot Found at Ripley, N. Y.

Erie Necklace, Restrung Bead by Bead as Found.

and burial ground. The examination of more than a hundred graves disclosed the fact that it must have long been occupied; that its inhabitants held a strong affection for their dead, and buried them in graves carefully prepared, and with as great decency as any civilized people. Many interesting discoveries of pottery were made, vessels of various forms and ornamentation, terra cotta and stone pipes, many other implements of peace and war, copper articles, also a few small pieces of iron, indicating that some communication had existed before their overthrow, with Europeans. These relics have been deposited in the State Mu-



Huronian Pipe, Found on an Erie Site at Ripley, N. Y.

seum at Albany. During the year 1907, Mr. Parker made an examination of a burial place near a well preserved old earthwork, on the farm of Martin McCullough, in the Town of Gerry, Chautauqua county, where nearly sixty skeletons were exhumed. Hon. Dilworth M. Silver of Buffalo, the writer of this article, and others, have made still further examinations with interesting results. Some of these examinations seem to indicate that the Eries were more advanced than other nations of the Huron-Iroquois family, and were rising from savagery towards a higher condition of barbarism, and may have been in the possession of knowledge that came down to their ancestors from the Alligewi. History informs us that it often happens that the conqueror acquires as his most valuable spoils the arts and accomplishments of his vanquished foe.

We have a fellow feeling for the men, rude, and savage though they may have been, whose hearts once warmed with fondness for scenes now as dear to us as they were once to them; who fished in our lakes and streams with a spear of bone, and, armed with stone-headed arrows, followed here the forest paths in pursuit of game; who gave their name to the waters of an inland sea that joins an empire in the east to another in the west, a sea that floats a commerce greater than the Mediterranean in Cæsear's time. The beautiful name that the barbarian gave it is destined in the progress of years to become classic and as famous as that of the Mediterranean itself.

Historic Fernandez De Taos

By Edwin L. Sabin

FROM the little railroad station of Servilletta, in northern New Mexico between Santa Fé and the Colorado line, it is thirty-five miles by stage eastward across the sage, through piñons into the cañon of the Rio Grande and out again to the quaint, storied old town Fernandez de Taos.

Completely overlooked by the casual traveler, even of more than the wonted historical interest in this historic Southwest, is Fernandez de Taos. It was long the northernmost settlement of importance on Mexican territory. Here was a Mexican custom-house; here was the gateway through which one passed, bound for the unknown north, or returning therefrom; here was the busiest of trading posts for Indians, Mexicans, and whites. Here the scout Kit Carson for many years had his home; here, according to the ancient church register, on February 6, 1843, was he married; here in the venerable graveyard he and his wife are buried. Here focussed the Pueblo and Mexican insurrection of 1846-47; here was murdered in his home Charles Bent, first of the governors after conquest by General Kearney, and here resides his daughter, who was present, a child, at the assassination.

In its heyday Fernandez de Taos was the rival of Santa Fé, being second only to it in size. It could boast the first printing-press operated west of the Missouri River—imported, after a laborious journey, by a Roman priest; and it issued, in 1837, the first newspaper, *El Crepusculo*.

During the closing years of the eighteenth century the town was besieged for days by a great force of savages, who at last withdrew for lack of provisions. Under Kit Carson it was the agency for the Utes and the Apaches; and it was then, as it had been previously, the principal rendezvous for expeditions against these turbulent tribes.

Many and many a time have sallied gaily from the plaza regulars and volunteers, dragoons and frontiersmen, to southward or northward, to the east or to the west. And after their foray have they come back, travel-worn, but bearing scalps, some of them, to disband.

Having been such a center of old-time activity, Fernandez de Taos has seen the faces of heroes and notables: the redoutable Carson, Colonel Ceran St. Vrain, contemporary resident and almost as famous as a fighter, Charles Beaubien, earliest of the circuit judges, Governor Charles Bent and his brother William Bent of the famous Bent's Fort; General Stephen W. Kearney the conquistador, Colonel Sterling Price, Fremont the Pathfinder—men who have made Western history; and as later guests Remington the painter, Curtis the Indian photographer, Mrs. Marah Ellis Ryan the romancer.

Two miles northward from the town is the pueblo of the Taos Indians, inhabited by five hundred people and in its perfection of type outclassing Zuñi.

The origin of Fernandez de Taos is veiled by legend. Ancient chronicles ascribe to it the title Don Fernando de Taos, as well as that of Don Fernandez de Taos. The wherefore of the Fernandez (and of the Fernando) is in dispute. Authorities would maintain that the settlement was named in honor of King Ferdinand the Fifth, of Spain. But the appellation has also a humbler history. Many years ago, before there was a named settlement, at this spot was located the ranch of one Fernandez (or Fernando), a Spaniard. By reason of the comparative proximity of the Indian pueblo, in his peregrinations about the country he was referred to as "Fernandez de Taos"—Ferdinand from Taos; and this expression has survived as a christening. The site of Ferdinand's house is still pointed out.

In August, 1556, Roman Catholic sovereignty in the district granted to the Taos Indians a tract to extend one league in all directions from the pueblo. This tract in-

cluded the confines of the present town of Fernandez de Taos. Being harassed sorely by the Apaches and Utes and other unfriendly Indians, early in the seventeenth century the pueblo ceded to a body of discharged Spanish soldiers land for a settlement, on condition that the settlers would aid the pueblo in its defense against invaders.

Thus, having been authorized as a bulwark, the town of Taos became an actuality. Today it has a population of some 1,200, with the Mexicans far outnumbering the Americans, and with Mexicano the general tongue.

The town is of adobe construction, and in typical Mexican fashion is built about a central plaza, or park: four sides of solid walls, save for the four streets and one lane, enclosing a grassy, shaded square. The Mexican plaza is an evolution of the old time corral. In times more rigorous, in primitive settlements, these plazas were but rudely fenced yards into which were herded transient stock, at night, while the owners camped around-about, thus protecting their property from the marauding Indians and beasts. Gradually buildings surrounded the corrals, the corrals themselves merged into one—and behold, the plaza.

The plaza at Taos formerly was almost twice as large as now. It is the favorite idling place of the citizens; along its fence saddle-horse and team are tethered; within it, on fiesta days, are erected booths, and it is thronged with merry-makers.

It has had its tragedies; for in a corner of it, in February, 1847, were hanged a squad of rebellious natives, captured by the troops in the affray following upon the assassination of the ill-fated governor.

To see Fernandez de Taos at its gayest, perhaps, is to see it on its Fourth of July—Guadalupe Day, commemorative of the ceding, by Mexico, February 2, 1848, of the southwest territory to the United States. However, Guadalupe Day no longer comes upon its anniversary date. Once it did, but the time proving, for various reasons, inconven-

The Pueblo Road on which the Indians come to Town.

ient, by the advice, so 'tis claimed, of the church authorities, it was transferred to October 1. Therefore upon October 1 the *rancheros* and their families for miles about pour into town; the plaza fence is fully occupied, booths are everywhere, and there will be five *bailes,* or balls, in full blast, afternoon and night, and enduring for several days.

Another feature dearly beloved by Taos is its merry-go-round. The present merry-go-round, which has now occupied its corner for a number of years, is the most pretentious yet installed—albeit the tails of its wooden horses, and the majority of the ears, are missing, having upon a certain occasion been shot off by a band of rollicking *vaqueros,* or cow-boys. However, this took place not at Taos, but at another town, not far distant.

In the beginning a merry-go-round first visited the Ranchos, four miles south. Rather, it was born there, being strictly home-made. The conveyances for the patrons were rudely built seats and the motive power was one-man—the owner and inventor lustily pushing at a short pole, following it around a central axis about which revolved the circle

Along the Plaza, which has been Witness to many stirring Events.

A View down the Plaza—In the Background is the Cupola of the old Church.

A Business Street—Indians always in evidence.

A Taos Side-Street—The Skylight in the center marks the Studio of the Artist, Phillips.

The Old Church at Taos.

Below this Sign was Kit Carson's Office.

Taos' Merry-go-round of exciting History and much Popularity.

Kit Carson's Taos Home, occupied by him until 1868; now delapidated.

The old Graveyard where Kit Carson and his Wife are buried.

of seats. As a novelty this merry-go-round was a grand success. The Mexicans and the Indians swarmed to it, eager to pay, when lacking money, in corn and peas and beans. As a result, the crop supply of the region was cornered by the merry-go-round, and a famine wellnigh ensued.

Soon the one-man power was abolished in favor of horse-power. Then, to assist and to further the enterprise, again the native population hastened to the rescue, bringing their ponies, and proffering them freely, that the entertainment might prosper and fail not.

Thus the merry-go-round at Taos is founded upon tradition. Having passed through its baptism of pistol-balls it lives a peaceful existence, is well patronized by American, Indian, and Mexican, and the smoke of its engine and the shrill of its whistle are a recognized part of Taos' daily routine.

In common with other early settlements of the Southwest, Taos possesses its old church. But how old, *quien sabe?* Upon a bracket of the interior is legible the date

1807; but this bracket merely denotes the completion of the ceiling now existing. Several roofs and ceilings have preceded—and roofs and ceiling last long in this climate. The wooden cupola is of recent addition, having been built within fifty years. Originally there was no such cupola. The adobe of the walls has been washed by rain so that wide blotches appear; and the rain also has worn away the supporting corners until they are almost detached. The churchyard, once level, now is an incline from the street to threshold; so many bodies have been laid to rest in the ground there. The bones form layer succeeding layer—a solid mass which tells of the years. Roman Catholicism is well represented at Taos, as throughout all New Mexico. Here are stationed a resident priest and an assistant, here is a convent, and here comes, every year, the bishop, to confirm a class in the town and a class at the pueblo. His visit is made the occasion of a celebration; and a galloping, painted cavalcade of Indians escorts him to the pueblo chapel. The town has also a Presbyterian school and mission.

But it is around Kit Carson's presence, in Fernandez de Taos, that much of our latter-day interest hovers. Taos was his first location when, as a boy, he came out of the Missouri country to seek his fortune in this farther West. He arrived at Taos, via Santa Fé, in November, 1826; and thenceforth, for over forty years, save for the intervals when he was being employed elsewhere as hunter and on army service, Taos was his headquarters. He tried ranching, near by, but Taos still drew him back.

After the death of his Indian wife he married here Maria Josafa Jaramillo. The entry is plain upon the parish register. Children were born; Taos remained the family home. Here he left his wife and children when expeditions called him away. In 1853 he was appointed agent over the Utes and the Apaches, and Taos saw him constantly. The house in which he and his lived, and the office which he used, are easily found by the stranger.

The older residents of the town recall the Carsons vividly, and speak of them with much affection. In the spring of 1868 the scout removed his family to the Arkansas River, near old Bent's Fort. Within a few weeks Mrs. Carson died, and soon thereafter her husband followed her. He had expressed a wish to be buried at Taos, which he dearly loved; and thither the bodies were conveyed, by wagon, overland. The two now lie side-by-side surrounded by a wooden paling, in the old graveyard.

Of equal importance, as a memory, with the renowned scout is Charles Bent—statesman, scholar, trader, man of affairs in the shaping of the West. He, also, clung fondly to Taos, retaining his home there although his new official duties, under American rule, took him much to Santa Fé, the capital.

He was appointed military governor for the United States, by General Kearney, September 22, 1846; and on January 19, 1847, he was cruelly attacked, scalped, and killed, in his Taos house. His family were eye-witnesses.

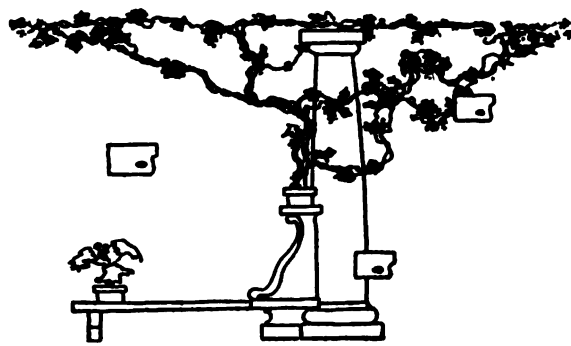
The adobe dwelling in which the horrid deed occurred is still in use, and the marks of the missiles may be descried in the walls.

Typically frontier, but nevertheless utterly peaceful, is Fernandez de Taos today. The lover of the romantic and the picturesque may here feast his soul. The railroad is yet afar; all is Mexican but little modified by the Americano, and the ever-present Pueblos, sturdy and friendly, with their gay blankets and their graceful poses, lend uncommon fascination to the streets.

At Taos lives and has his studio the artist Bert Geer Phillips, who is devoting his brush to the Pueblos. With him came to Taos a brother artist, of especial repute as a magazine illustrator, E. L. Blumenschein. Sauerwen, J. H. Sharp, E. D. Couse, are other artists who find delight in Taos.

Irrigation has made the country around-about green with alfalfa and corn, orchards and gardens. To the east

are the mountains, and mountains close the valley on the north. In the fall Indian Summer lingers long, wrapping the vistas in bluish haze, and spangling the mountain-slopes with the gorgeous yellow of the frost-touched quaking-asp. Then Taos is particularly charming—a veritable lotus-land, soothing the senses, and inspiring to tale and reverie of the brave days that were.



Charles Eliot Norton

To have been for over half a century the friend and intimate of the greatest writers of his time, both in this country and in England, is the chief distinction of Charles Eliot Norton, who, for many years, was Professor of the History of Art at Harvard and is now professor emeritus. Arthur Hugh Clough, who visited America in the fifties, was one of the first of the great authors to become the friend of Norton and an even greater friendship followed shortly when Ruskin and Norton became acquainted in England.

Mr. Norton's original work in literature is comparatively slight and is to be found chiefly in his correspondence with his friends, his translation of Dante, and his editions of the correspondence of Lowell, Carlyle and Emerson, Goethe and Carlyle, and of Ruskin, this last published a few years ago in the *Atlantic Monthly*. Ably qualified by his personal knowledge and by his discriminating taste, Mr. Norton has fulfilled these literary executorships with rare ability and discretion.

Mr. Norton is noted as a Dante scholar and his translations of the "Vita Nuova" and the "Divina Commedia" are second only to those of Cary. He has also written "Historical Studies of Church Building in the Middle Ages," "Notes of Travel and Study in Italy" and "Considerations on Some Recent Social Theories." This original work is, it will be seen, inadequate alone to justify Mr. Norton's high place in American letters. It is rather because his literary judgment has aided many noble writers and his artistic taste guided many a Harvard undergraduate that he has been and still is an influence in American art and literature.

Mr. Norton was born in 1827 at Cambridge, Massachusetts, where he still resides.

Charles Eliot Norton.

On Chautauqua Lake.

Dawn at Chautauqua

Life wakened me one morn beside the lake:—
The Sun, a silent trump of silvern gold,
Spake all things new from Night's reluctant old;—
The East one red whence lately gray did break;—
The birds from him a freshening chrism take,
And grass and trees and waves thrill new-create,
Quivering with re-born happiness, elate
To form bright pacts of joy for dear Dawn's sake.

Chautauqua! Symbol of the Spirit new,
That spreads a life out, open, candid, free;
Cultured of good, of beautiful and true;—
Opening keen eyes to try each novelty;—
In thy meek depth high Heaven itself doth see;—
'Mong men Good-Will in shining verity!

—Clifford Lanier.

A Foreign View of Chautauqua*

By Prof. Andreas Baumgartner

(Zurich, Switzerland.)

IN my journey, Chautauqua was my first goal. It lies on Lake Chautauqua in the extreme western corner of New York State. This lake has the outline and area of Lake Zurich, and extends northwards towards Lake Erie. In the winter, Chautauqua is quite deserted; in summer, particularly in July and August, its pretty frame houses are packed. At that time, from every section families and individuals hasten hither to attend the Chautauqua summer schools. The latter are but annexes of a much larger organization, the so-called "Chautauqua Institution," founded in 1874 by Bishop Vincent and Lewis Miller (Alva Edison's father-in-law). This brings together many thousand adults for the purpose of self-education, and enables its members to complete the deficiencies of an ordinary schooling. A daily sacrifice of twenty minutes is devoted to reading a monthly magazine and four specially written books. Its motive is to prevent too wide a gulf betwixt them and their student children.

Now the summer schools are managed by Dr. George E. Vincent, a son of Bishop Vincent, and a professor at the University of Chicago. Whoever can afford it ends his year's labors with a visit to Chautauqua, when, under the guidance of able specialists during two months studies are maintained. Here for certain labors each year, degrees are conferred,† and for the successful following of certain single courses, diplomas are issued, which are legally recognized.

*Prof. Baumgartner was a lecturer and visitor at Chautauqua in the season of 1905. In his book entitled "Erinnerungen aus Amerika," published in Zurich, appears this chapter on "Chautauqua, the Summer-town." Translation made for THE CHAUTAUQUAN by Herman Rosenthal, New York Public Library.

†By charter Chautauqua is given power to grant degrees but this power is not exercised.

The vacation courses came from the States to England as "University Extension" lectures and thence to the continent.

The visitors to Chautauqua go there of their own accord. There are teachers of both sexes, the clergy, and students. Much is offered that is new, and in some subjects the presentation is much simpler and more concise than at the colleges. The number of visitors annually reaches about 15,000, inclusive of the teaching faculty, management, and servants, as well as some relatives and friends who join the student body.

This July and August Chautauqua is a thing not paralleled anywhere else: a summer town with all the features of municipal administration, police, fire, building, finance, tax and health departments, with a supply of light and water, post, telegraph and telephone, a bank, printing office, steamship and railroad stations,—in a word all serving the end of rendering the spot ideal to the Chautauquans, who seek naught but spiritual and bodily improvement.

Chautauqua village is made up of several hundred small dwellings and tents, a large hotel, and a mass of buildings belonging to the Institution. The latter consist of an amphitheater, lecture-halls, club-rooms, museum, gymnasia, chapels, shops, and rooms for the several handicraft courses; besides those belonging to the management and offices. These are mostly neat frame structures scattered harmoniously through a wooded park. Of course, the streets are primitive, but with clean roadways and pretty lawns. A strip about 200 meters long on the lake has been converted into a relief of Palestine, with a genuine Lake Genezareth, a Dead Sea, and a running Jordan, hills and dales, and here and there a town and village. Thus lectures on the Holy Land may be associated with a tour through it, providing the auditors are not too many.

So Chautauqua is a genuine secluded American country village, but yet a mighty school combining both kinder-

garten and university. It is a happy and wonderful combination of study and summer vacation.

Daily from 8 a. m. to 4:30 p. m., in July and August, courses of every sort are conducted: in science, foreign languages, the handicrafts, the training of Sunday school teachers of both sexes, of kindergarten teachers, besides courses for physical development (gymnastics, fencing, swimming and out-door games). Also, lectures are delivered on literary subjects, history, pedagogy, psychology, religion, and ethnology. The program is so extensive as to give the idea that, winter sports aside, all that the world has to teach may be acquired here. To give one an idea, I shall at random select from last year's program a few of the subjects from the courses of lectures: Cicero's Orations, the English novel, sketching on the black-board, sight-reading, typewriting, quantitative analysis, parliamentary law, youthful games, the four Gospels, cooking, the mandolin and the banjo, voice-culture, basket-weaving, modern lyric poetry, the inner life of Jesus, Plato, Socrates, book-binding, water-colors, book-keeping, debating, library courses, Hegel and his influence, social psychology, medical gymnastics, etc.

As but one of these can be thoroughly followed, each student selects but one. Music and lectures are to him solely recreative. I had a whole week to spare, and wished to look into all a little, but it was impossible to do more than observe superficially an extremely limited set of subjects.

An hour every day is devoted to a religious lecture, which is given by a prominent university professor changed each week. At 4:30, the social life begins. Representatives from the several departments give informal receptions, inviting guests or persons of prominence. One is introduced, shakes hands, chats and is served with non-alcoholic beverages by the ladies. There is no prescribed dress, and one soon feels among friends.

In the evening, a large part of the visitors gather in the amphitheater, easily holding seven thousand, to hear

musical performances, lectures with magic lantern, theatrical and declamatory entertainments. For the last, as in the others, the best talent of the country is engaged, to maintain the exalted reputation of Chautauqua.

The uniqueness of Chautauqua is essentially that in a school of gigantic scale, but optional, all culminates in learning and other spiritual edification, and that added to this main aim nothing is thought of but sociability and such measure of sport as is needed to maintain one's physical well-being.

So one does not meet anyone in this summer town who wishes but to do business; no fakers, idlers, saloons, nothing of the American bill-posting nuisance; but solely those following an ideal. One seems to feel oneself transported into another world. The longer one stays in this wonderful place, the more is he confirmed in this view by every experience and observation, which in a short stay might be overlooked. The guest at the large hotel finds gradually that the entire domestic hotel personnel, save the colored boot-black, is made up of educated individuals. The imposing waitress at our table was a Buffalo music teacher, who, between meals, followed her further education. At the left-hand table a student served; and to the right, a young teacher. As I half jokingly remarked to the bright amiable hotel-clerk, you too may be a student, he smilingly took from his inner pocket his matriculation paper, which showed he was following classical philology. His favorite author was Emerson. From that day, my converse with the Chautauquan clerk revolved solely about American literature.

One of the first days as I was either working or dreaming on a meadow under the shade of an apple tree, I made a similar discovery. About the neighboring fence walked a good looking young fellow in a simple uniform. Every now and then he glanced into a book, and I determined to make his acquaintance. But he made the first advance. Then I found him to be the son of a clergyman, and a mem-

ber of the local police, and intending the following fall to enter the university.

All these persons had engaged in service in Chautauqua, which enabled them to follow some course or hear a certain series of lectures. America is free from prejudice as to physical pursuits. Little as the American esteems the millionaire for his money, so little does he look down on living from manual labor. And what is so remarkable to us in Garfield's life, his wood-splitting and shingling during his vacation, and school janitorship, is in America quite in the ordinary. The students employ their long vacations gladly in earning money or gaining knowledge of the world and humanity. Many leave their immediate homes and go preferably to the summer resorts along the lakes, taking positions in the hotels. Or they go west, working on the farms.

The fact that in Chautauqua the waiting personnel is also made up of an educated class accounts for the fact that the visitor never is out of an agreeable, kindly, polished, and cultured atmosphere. So one is strengthened in the belief of having been taken from the everyday world to an ideal atmosphere of some other planet.

Sunday is devoted to rest and religion. A Chautauquan Sunday is in its way quite as noteworthy as one of the week-days. After a severe week full of work and excitement, the quiet Sunday is a priceless enjoyment.

Originally the Chautauqua Summer Schools were a Methodist idea, equally devoted to religious and worldly education. Now Chautauqua is independent of any church. Barring the Catholic, every denomination is represented, and each has its own chapel. Sundays, the bulk of the students distribute themselves to an early service in Methodist, Baptist, Congregational, Presbyterian, Lutheran, Unitarian, Campbellite Houses, etc., etc. But at eleven, a few thousand unite in a common service in the amphitheater. The afternoon offers yet to the indefatigable all sorts of duties and pleasures. At three, there is Sunday-school for

all ages; at four, Christian ethics; at five, afternoon service; at seven, a walk with a Palestine tourist through the "Holy Land;" at eight, a sacred concert.

The area of Chautauqua, as yet enclosing large meadows which would admit a doubling of the houses, is enclosed all about,—on one side by the lake and on the other by a palisade fence. The latter, as referred to above, is guarded by police until ten at night. Entrance to Chautauqua is thus only possible by the turnstiles at the steamboat landing and railroad station. And even these are only open to members of the summer schools. Others must pay an admission fee of two francs a day.

Sundays, only members can come and go showing their cards. Strangers are not admitted. The boats do not stop here on this day, but make a turn around Chautauqua.

Of course, even in America, all not well acquainted with Chautauqua smile at such restrictions and exclusiveness. But the founders were far-sighted enough to recognize their need. The reputation of this wonderful summer town is so far-spread, and its position on the lake is so beautiful, that Chautauqua would make a favorite resort for Sunday excursions. Chautauqua would on Sunday pertain to strange visitors. It would be crowded by Sunday-trippers and picnic societies, and the best these would leave would be scraps of paper and orange peels.

But thanks to the precautions taken, on Sunday also Chautauqua is exclusively for the Chautauquans. It is not desecrated on Sundays. It remains always as in the words of Bishop Vincent ("A Reading Journey Through Chautauqua," by Frank Chapin Bray, with an introduction by Chancellor John H. Vincent, 1905): "The place where nature and art work together for the welfare of all who land upon its shores, meander beneath its trees, ride on its waves, or enjoy in its halls a stimulating sociability. And besides it is a teaching site, embracing all things whose study contributes so much to the purification and cultivation of the spirit and embellishment of domestic life."

Assembly Ideals and Practice

By Daniel W. Howell

(General Secretary of the C. L. S. C.)

ONE of the leading Chautauqua managers of the country in writing to me made use of this sentence in reference to workers in the C. L. S. C. Department of Assemblies: "There doesn't seem to be any demand. I hope you will be successful in working up a demand." As I read the sentence my impression was that this eminent Chautauqua leader had failed to catch the true conception of a Chautauqua Assembly. What is the purpose of an assembly? For what does it stand in the community? What is its mission on the American continent? Is its only purpose to cater to a crowd by satisfying an abnormal craving for sensationalism?

I take it that this movement stands for the highest ideals of moral and intellectual character; and, standing for such ideals, it should never be a follower but always a leader. It should never drift with the current of popular opinion without purpose, aim, and ambition, but it should stand ever for the largest improvement, for the broadest culture, and for the highest achievement. I am very fearful of the outcome if it does not embody ideals above the ordinary and beyond the average. In every community it should raise the general average of intelligence and morality. There is no more effective agency in moulding public opinion and in making character; but managers, at the very outset, must bear in mind that it should be a creating power and not a blind follower of an ephemeral fancy. If the ideal is realized it must supply for character-building moral, intellectual, and spiritual food. Shame to that organization which degrades its platform by making it a means of providing only laughs and jokes for the coarse and vulgar! The genuine Chautauqua should stand squarely and always for three things: a true patriotism, a consistent Christianity,

and an improved intellect. It is not a mere entertainment bureau for giving a "rollicking good time" for so much hard cash but it is an intellectual center for disseminating the ripest opinions of the best students on all subjects of human weal. More than all other institutions it is the best medium for giving the results of investigation in all fields of scholarship, because its platform is untrammelled by creed, school, or sect. It can give to every community the best thought of the best minds of the times. This may appear an exalted ideal, beyond present-day possibility, but I do not believe that it is. To more fully understand the situation let us consider some phases of this ideal in the light of present conditions.

Can we maintain such an ideal and make it pay?

The commercial side of the assembly touches every manager very closely. He must fill the coffers with cash or his credit will be below par; so he too often considers the popularity of today and loses sight of the prosperity of tomorrow. The commercial side has been having full swing and the few big days have been running their course, until a large number of assemblies are feeling sorely the lack of a permanent constituency. Here are some actual words from managers: "Will cut out many things from program, so as to operate without a loss;" "It is very doubtful if we shall have an assembly;" "We continue only the entertainment feature;" "I do not think the Chautauqua will be a permanent institution in ——; at least we will not back it any more." These are significant sentences from a few managers, for they betray the sad fact that too many assemblies have been endeavoring to make good financial loss by appealing to the vaudeville crowd, and have found that the loss caused by a few stormy days cannot be made up by bright ones. When the summer assembly is placed on a purely commercial basis it is a most precarious business. If it can be made to pay at all it will be by securing the coöperation of the best citizens and so gaining a permanent constituency, without which it is bound to lose

money. The sooner we look this question squarely in the face the more quickly will Chautauqua Assemblies be placed upon a paying basis. They can be made to pay their own way when ideals of real helpfulness are continuously maintained. With a substantial program and schools which satisfy a real desire for development, prosperity will surely be the result. True friends and staunch supporters are not gathered from the fickle crowd but are found seeking "goodly pearls" of knowledge at the feet of modern Gamaliels.

Can we maintain such an ideal when we are dependent upon the people?"

"The people will not stand for it." "We must give the crowd what they want." "There is a demand for the light and frivolous and we cannot get them to give allegiance to the best things." "We always have some educational classes but the attendance is small." These sentiments are heard again and yet again and according to some seem to be the universal verdict of managers. It is a growing impression of mine that the people will respond to the emphasis of the management. The psychology of a multitude is a most interesting study. The few master-minds always move and control others. It is easy by eulogistic praise to rouse a crowd to the heat of enthusiasm and it also is not difficult by malign insinuation to depress a multitude to sullen indifference. The general public, I firmly believe, will follow in the right direction if there is enthusiastic leadership. If managers will enforce the educational idea there will be a larger response. It was reported to me that at one assembly within the last few years continual emphasis was given in announcement to every sensational or semi-sensational feature, while one of the lecturers of the best type was advertised only by the program; his lecture was never mentioned, even once, from the platform. A noted nature study teacher told me of his experience at a popular assembly where there was no one to present him and he was compelled to introduce himself

and make his own announcements. True, these are stray incidents, but it is too generally true that the comparatively few illustrious speakers are the only ones prominently advertised in the announcements of assemblies. We have sown to the fickle fancy and we are reaping a harvest of failures. We have no right to assume that the public will not respond to educational features until we devote to them the same prominence we now give to the star attractions. In one state there has been continual prominence given to the C. L. S. C. and its attendant educational features and that state has been noted for the long and successful life of its Chautauqua assemblies. The people who give prestige and who stand by in face of financial storm are never gathered from the moving crowd that are pleased or displeased with one or two distinguished lights who condescend to give their brilliant illumination to one session of any assembly. My plea is for the substantial people, who have the destiny of every assembly in their hands; we want them and we can have them. I have great confidence in the leaven of good in the heart and mind of the American people. Give them that which will command their best thought; they will not fail us. Let us not be too fearful of trusting the people! We can maintain the highest ideals because we are dependent upon the people.

Can we maintain such an ideal unless we have brilliant leaders to conduct the educational features?

Do we ever hear of managers who spend large sums upon novelties and expect brilliant teachers to come for almost nothing? Is it ever suspected as being true that so much is spent to procure startling attractions that but a meager amount can be expended to give the bread of life to mind and heart? I know a man who is in the position of both assembly manager and "talent." He told me one amusing experience of his life in which a certain bureau was endeavoring to persuade him to take on his program a high-priced man for a single lecture; at another time this same bureau desired the services of my friend and was un-

willing to pay him for a week's service as much money as had been demanded by them for one lecture by the other man. My friend's opinion was that the week's services at less expense would bring larger actual return than one lecture costing more money. One assembly has become famous and has made money by paying almost fabulous fees to teachers. Why should not every educational department of an assembly have as instructor an eminent educator? If it is true that this department has been less popular at assemblies than some others, is it not because the management has failed to see the wisdom of employing the most able and successful instructors? People will always flock to listen to a brilliant leader and certainly there are many such thinkers who can be procured to give time and ability to the summer schools. Why not divide the general expense of an assembly more equitably, alloting a larger portion to this one department? It may be that our assemblies have looked upon the educational work as purely a side-show to the main attractions, losing thereby the possibility of gaining the largest results from this department. If the assemblies of the country for a few years would entirely change their tactics and present educational departments under the care of acknowledged educators they would increase the usefulness of their institutions and find themselves with a constituency worth while. I have never been able to understand why assemblies would be content with mediocre educational leaders when they might have men preëminent in chosen fields. I think that it is true that all the educational work at all the assemblies in all the country could be conducted by a higher grade of artists than are now employed and keep the total expense of the program below what is now paid for the present miscellaneous array. This plea is for the eminent leader and I believe that he is a possibility to any and every assembly.

Can we maintain such an ideal when assemblies hold such short sessions?

This ideal is, I believe, a possibility when it centers

upon an idea that can be practically worked at an assembly and lived up to away from the assembly. The real purpose of a Chautauqua assembly is not bounded by the session held during the summer; but its aim is to give to every attendant some impression or some plan by which the entire life during the rest of the year may be made better. The touching of an individual for two weeks accomplishes something but how much better to inspire him for a whole year! When the short session is made a means of intellectual stimulus throughout the entire year the possibility of many lives is incalculably enlarged. The idea inaugurated by Bishop Vincent was a Home Reading Course with an assembly as a center. The point of contact and the power of inspiration is the summer gathering with a course to be followed out when away from the assembly. Every man and woman, influenced to take such a course, becomes a devoted follower of the local institution and a partisan in its interest. The session of the assembly is made a rendezvous for readers and their friends and so a vital interest is created in the summer session. We have been trying too long to make a big impression for a few days by startling announcements of the wonderful oratory of the world-famous somebody of whom the community never heard before and by whom they would be but slightly bettered. Let us go back to the first principles of Chautauqua and bring to every community a new type of life and a new impulse for betterment, and the short session assembly will have a more stable constituency and a better audience for a really great man with a vital message. Larger numbers of readers of the Chautauqua Course will bring a greater local interest, so creating an anticipation for the session when something worth while will be offered. To be permanent the assembly must engender some interest more than is centered in the few days of the session.

Can we maintain such an ideal when there is so little taste for good reading?

Those who have made a study of the reading of the

American people intimate that there is evidence of a depraved taste. When a writer of splendid standing makes the bold assertion that more than half the books published on the American continent are not worth reading we are not surprised to have those who are interested in the largest development of intellectual life depressed. Is it true that there is more bad literature than good? Are the majority of volumes read by the people of the class known as "books of action?" Do all the facts warrant the assumption that there is but little appetite for the good? I am not so pessimistic as many others in reference to the taste of the people; but if the worst be true, is there no means by which many can be influenced to read a higher class of literature? I will not affirm, but I am persuaded that a change for the better can be made by a little wise direction. There is no necessity for exhorting the American people to read, for they devour any and everything, being largely influenced by convenience. We are great newspaper readers simply because newspapers can easily be secured; we read magazines because they can be found at every station and on every train or can be brought to our door; we read a good many worthless books simply because they are near at hand. If a course of reading were as easy for the people to secure as the latest edition of the newspaper or the current magazine or the newest novel it would be as readily taken up as is now the daily, the monthly, or the volume. It seems to me that while many consider this apparent lack of taste sufficient reason for not pushing a course in good literature it is in reality the reverse. The argument does not favor inaction but is an exceedingly strong one for energetically toiling to put good in place of bad. Pray, what other institution can lift up the standard of the community's reading better than Chautauqua with its Reading Course? This course touches all lines of development: historical, literary, scientific, sociological, religious. It is the one institution, outside of the Christian Church, which makes for the ennobling of the entire man. If a local assembly

should promote this course during the time of its session and place in the hands of many persons the books and magazines it could transform the reading of the entire community. I am certain that the librarians of this country would gladly welcome and heartily coöperate with such a movement, for they feel keenly the need of it. They deplore the present condition, for one of them in answer to a question of mine as to the class of books taken from his library hesitated, finally acknowledging that he was ashamed to let it be known just what was read. Then he added that if those who take books regularly would undertake the reading of the Chautauqua Course it would be a benediction to the city. The assemblies could have the libraries to help bring the good conveniently before people. With these splendid possibilities I feel that we not only can hold such an ideal in our minds but that we should by our activity transform our ideal into reality until strong minds be cultivated in every hamlet, in every city, and in every state of the nation. If there is little taste at the present time for the best it would seem that the Chautauqua assemblies are the very best media for creating fine intellectual appetites.

Can we maintain such an ideal apart from the Mother Chautauqua?

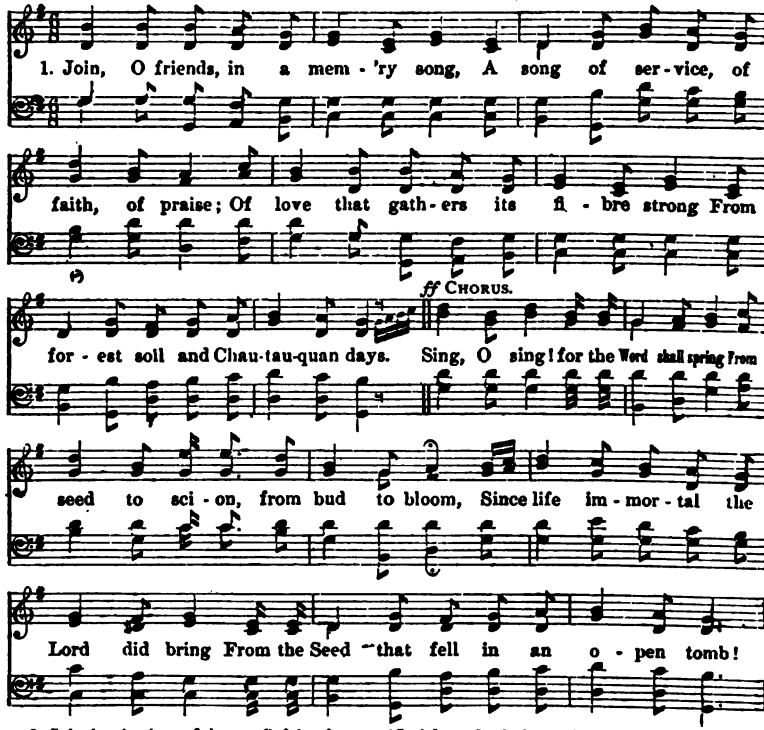
I sometimes question in my mind as to the thought of local assemblies in regard to the one at Chautauqua Lake. Do they consider it a friend or a foe? Have not many assumed the original name and neglected to promote the ideal? Do they not desire the enthusiasm produced by the magic word upon their banners while they forget that for which the name stands? Is it ever considered that the original institution is working in its own interest without regard to others? Has it ever been suspected that it is toiling for purely commercial ends and using other institutions to help it in its purpose? Do any managers ever feel that they are merely agents to advance its welfare at the expense of their own? As I go about and talk with men I am impressed occasionally that there is a sentiment

that Chautauqua is purely selfish, working for its own advancement irrespective of anyone else or any other assembly. It does not seem to be generally accepted that the best friend of every assembly is the Mother of them all and that by every effort she is endeavoring to make every other larger, stronger, and more permanent a blessing to the community. The real fact of the case is that the assemblies of this country have no better ally nor warmer friend than the Mother institution. It never has been and it never will be a purely commercial enterprise. It was started with the hope of blessing a large number of people and it still continues to do business on the same principle and under the same policy with which it began its existence. Believing in this principle it expects means sufficient to promote its benevolent and beneficent ends. It has never been its aim or effort to wring from others cash to enrich its own coffers, but its purpose has ever been to give larger ideals and bring better financial returns to every other institution. It believes more firmly than it ever has that its ideals still have vitality and will give long life to every assembly making the vision a reality. It stands today ready to open its fountain of wisdom in order that every assembly manager and every patron in the country may drink the pure water of intellectual and spiritual life. It places its officers at the disposal of any manager who desires help. As tangible evidence of this policy it has recently created an office, held by the writer of this article, for the express purpose of carefully studying the situation, of keeping in touch with the Reading Course and Assembly work and of helping all who may call upon him. By this action it hopes to make itself of greater usefulness to other institutions.

Considering all the facts given above it is my firm conviction that the ideal of the founders of Chautauqua may be as easily worked today as ever and that it has its mission to the present day and generation. With the strengthening of the Chautauqua idea and with the growth of Chautauqua ideals in the heart and life of the American people a larger vision

and a more robust character will be seen from one end of the country to the other. We have held too conspicuously to thoughts purely commercial and have built our hopes too largely upon the applause of the fickle multitude, thereby losing sight of the one great fact that life consisteth not in the abundance of material things but in the treasure of the soul. The outward may perish but within is that by which we live and grow. The Chautauqua ideal appeals to the inner man and if all the managers of all the assemblies in all the country would cultivate more energetically the development of this inner life they would reach a greater height of achievement in every direction: a larger income, a permanent constituency, a widespread influence, and a more lasting life.

JOIN, O FRIENDS, IN A MEMORY SONG.

MARY A. LATHBURY. (NORMAL ALUMNI SONG.) WM. F. SHERWIN, 1877

1. Join, O friends, in a mem - 'ry song, A song of ser - vice, of
faith, of praise; Of love that gath - ers its fi - bre strong From
ff CHORUS.
for - est soil and Chau-tau-quan days. Sing, O sing! for the Word shall spring From
seed to sci - on, from bud to bloom, Since life im - mor - tal the
Lord did bring From the Seed that fell in an o - pen tomb!

2 Join in singing of hope, O friends,
The Lord is coming his own to bless,
And tried and true is the band he sends
To open a way in the wilderness.
Chorus.

3 After the briar, the thorn, the weed,
Shall spring a plant of a wondrous birth;
And Love—the flow'r of a heavenly seed—
With bloom and beauty shall fill the earth.
Chorus.

Memorials to the Founders of Chautauqua

TWO memorial chapels, very similar in design and suggesting what archeologists would call "late copies of an earlier original," were built some few years ago in two New Jersey towns, Plainfield and Orange. Architecturally the prototype of these two chapels is a famous Sunday-School room in Ohio erected by Mr. Lewis Miller of Akron in the early seventies. Historically and educationally the two buildings have a sort of dual personality for each commemorates one of the two founders of Chautauqua Institution, men of strong individuality possessed of diverse gifts, yet drawn together by their common interest in promoting within the church a more intelligent religious life.

In looking back over the history of Chautauqua which has had such signal influence upon general movements for popular education throughout the world, there seems an evident fitness in the fact that its first educational appeal to popular need was a religious one and was made through the medium of the Sunday School. It was by this circumstance brought at once into direct relation with home and family life.

Bishop John H. Vincent, one of the founders of Chautauqua, has been from the earliest days of his ministry, a teacher, a leader and an inspirer of men. The possibilities of the Sunday School as an educational laboratory early appealed to him. Feeling that in its work the church possessed one of its greatest sources of power, he devoted to it all his creative energy. His own denomination was not slow to recognize his gifts and at thirty-six Chautauqua's future Chancellor found himself entrusted with the direction of the entire Sunday School work of the Methodist Episcopal Church.

As editor of the Sunday School publications of his own denomination, two things quickly became evident to him:

the importance of better equipment for the great body of Sunday School teachers, whose efforts admirable in their devotion and zeal, could not always be "according to knowledge," and the need of emphasis upon essentials in the religious life of the time, too much under the sway of denominational prejudice. Just as every minister had, in his own Sunday School, a local laboratory for experiments in religious education, so the handling of larger problems by means of a broad training school, biblical, educational, and interdenominational, became in his mind a necessity for both preacher and teacher. Out of this necessity Chautauqua developed. Its quickening influence upon tens of thousands of communities through the fresh thought which permeated the Sunday Schools and the larger point of view which drove denominational jealousies into the background, belong to the early achievements of this now world-wide religious and educational "folk-moot."

In the evolution of Chautauqua, the influence of another directing mind, that of Mr. Lewis Miller of Akron, Ohio, also contributed to the security of its early foundations. Mr. Lewis Miller of Akron, Ohio, a generous and enlightened manufacturer, had already given to his own Sunday School not only a very complete and effective organization, but a unique building, semi-circular in form and surrounded by galleries which could be subdivided into class rooms, the idea having suggested itself to him at an out-of-door Sunday School picnic in a natural ravine. Many years after in recalling Mr. Miller's services to Chautauqua, his creative energy, his wise counsel in locating the new movement out of doors and his substantial material aid, Chancellor Vincent said: "And thus the picnic ground and the Akron Sunday School room prepared the way in his mind and under his direction for the Chautauqua Amphitheater."

During the greater part of his twenty years of activity in Sunday School work until his election as Bishop in 1888, Chancellor Vincent made his home in Plainfield, New Jersey, a community which became famous for the broad and catho-

First Methodist Episcopal Church, Orange, New Jersey, with Miller Chapel on the right.

Miller Chapel, First Methodist Episcopal Church, Orange, New Jersey.

Miller Chapel, First Methodist Episcopal Church, Orange, New Jersey.

Vincent Chapel, First Methodist Episcopal Church, Plainfield, New Jersey.

Vincent Chapel, First Methodist Episcopal Church, Plainfield, New Jersey.

lic spirit characteristic of its church life. When in 1888 the First Methodist Episcopal Church of that city erected its new Sunday School room, it claimed the privilege of naming it "Vincent" in honor of one who had served his own community with the same devotion which had characterized his work for his church and the world at large. The chapel was dedicated on February 5, 1888, with the regular ritual of the Methodist Episcopal Church, addresses being delivered by Dr. A. H. Tuttle and Dr. Jesse Lyman Hurlbut.

Some years later, following the death of Mr. Lewis Miller in 1899, the First Methodist Episcopal Church of Orange, New Jersey, of which Mrs. Thomas A. Edison, Mr. Miller's daughter, is an active member, arranged for a beautiful memorial chapel, to be built on the general plan of the early Akron Sunday School room. This building was dedicated April 5, 1905, and is known as "Miller Chapel."

The Life of Alice Freeman Palmer*

"Will't see a soul all her own wealth,
Her own music, her own health;
* * * * * * * *
A happy soul that all the way
To heaven hath a summer's day;"

With the delicate appreciation of a literary artist Professor Palmer has made use of these and attendant lines "adapted from Richard Crashaw" as an epilogue to his recent life of Alice Freeman Palmer, and something of the atmosphere of her "happy soul" one inevitably carries away from this exquisitely wrought out biography. The author with sympathetic insight has discerned in each stage of Mrs. Palmer's life, the bearing of circumstances upon the development of her character, but while weaving into his volume a clearly defined historic background, he has so subordinated it to the vivid picturing of her singularly rich and complex personality that the book seems almost a vital thing rather than a reminiscence of a completed life.

Very early in her childhood came experiences which left a deep impress upon her character. The family home was at Colesville, a rich farming country in central New York, not far from Binghamton. Her father, a man much disposed to care for those about him, decided with the encouragement of his family to become a physician, and this decision marked an epoch in the life of the little household, Alice, seven years of age, being the oldest of the four children. Her biographer records this event as significant:

*By Professor George Herbert Palmer, with portraits and views, 8vo., pp. 354. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50 net, postage 15 cents.

"Where means were found for maintaining father and family during the audacious interval I have never been able to discover. Of course, the cares of the household were doubled, yet in so splendid a cause as to fix forever in the mind of one of them the wisdom of sacrificing present comforts to ideal ends. Alice Freeman never forgot those glorious years. They were among the few events of her childhood to which she often referred; for they set a pattern to which she was ever after eager to conform, of noble aims, willing suffering, resourcefulness, persistence, and ultimate arrival at greater ability to serve."

In her school girl years in the neighboring village of Windsor, where her father later settled as a physician, she early developed those deeper impulses toward educational and religious growth which point to the shaping of a marked individuality. In 1868 she joined the Presbyterian Church. She was also greatly influenced at this period by a singularly inspiring teacher. Of this momentous time her biographer writes:

"It is a heroic moment for any one of us when, face to face with God, we formally announce that henceforth we are accountable to Him alone. It marks the attainment of full self-consciousness. The young soul takes itself in charge and says, 'Mine is the decision. I have chosen my way of laying hold of life.' The authority of parents is at an end, supplanted by the laws of reason, righteousness, and human welfare. So at least Alice Freeman understood her crisis. To it education, love and religion all contributed. Experiences which fall upon most of us separately and at much later periods she encountered in their collective force when she had barely entered her teens. Her scale of growth is different from the ordinary. She needed to start early so as to pack into her forty-seven years what others hardly include in their threescore and ten.

"Always devout, she now consecrated herself, and for the rest of her life the desire for the utmost service of God's children seems to inspire every private impulse. In her case, religion did not appear in its negative character, as restraint; it always signified joyous freedom and enlargement. It brought assurance of humanity's kinship with the power which dominates all. No situation can therefore arise in which hostile forces are engaged against us, nor need we be crushed by an indifferent world. Every harsnest circumstance contains some novel mode of access to God and our broader life. Of these matters she seldom spoke. I never knew her to argue them. They merely represent her working conviction, confirmed by every day's experience. Thus she viewed things, and things were ever ready to respond."

It is difficult now to associate with Mrs. Palmer's radiant personality the thought of years of privation, ill-health,

anxiety, and struggle; yet the succeeding years of her university training made severe demands upon her. She had entered the University of Michigan meagerly prepared and at the end of a preparatory period of great nervous strain. Family finances were in a precarious state and a tendency to weak lungs made her own health uncertain. But over against these causes of anxiety were her delight in study and the unusual opportuities for association with men of distinction. The faculty of the University was at this period rather exceptional. Her winning personality commanded their interest and sympathy and among them she numbered many who became her life-long friends. In the midst of her junior year it became evident to her that home needs imperatively demanded her help. With characteristic decision she left the University without consulting her family and became principal of a decadent high school at Ottawa, Ill., where skilful management was needed if the school was to survive. She was nineteen and this was her first experience as a teacher. In the twenty weeks of her service she set the school on its feet, relieved the family burdens and in the autumn was able to return to her senior year at Ann Arbor.

What Professor Palmer designates as "her period of service" covers the short but crucial years from her graduation at twenty-one to her marriage eleven years later, and the marvelous aspects of the story are not merely the accomplishment of herculean labors by a young woman in her twenties, but the unfolding of a character of rare distinction. A year of teaching in a private school at Lake Geneva, Wisconsin, followed her graduation. The year was a dark one, for family needs pressed upon her and a deeply loved and brilliant young sister became seriously ill. The next year, through the influence of President Angell she was again requested to uphold a demoralized high school, this time at Saginaw, Michigan. It was a situation calling for the utmost resources of wisdom and tact in the girl of twenty-two:

"The leader of the organized turbulence was a young man of about her own years; for she was only twenty-two, slight, and in feeble health. Within a week she had turned him out of school and did not readmit him until he had made public apology. Within two months all friction had disappeared, the standard of scholarship was raised, teachers and pupils were alike friendly. She had won the people of Saginaw, and at the end of the year a hundred dollars of additional salary was gratuitously voted her. I have talked with pupils of that school, who cannot comprehend how anything less than magic could in a few weeks have changed so rude a company as themselves into sweet-natured and diligent students."

But family perplexities once more made themselves felt. Financial distress necessitated abandoning the old home, and father, mother, brothers, and sisters, made a new start together at Saginaw. After a few months of happiness as a reunited family, the shadows again drew close, for the young sister for whose future Alice Freeman had planned and whose brilliant powers she had cherished, died at eighteen. In referring to some of her letters written at this time, Professor Palmer says:

"I suppose I must give a few poignant glimpses into the two years' life in Saginaw, years which began in gladness and ran into continually deeper tragedy. Without them Miss Freeman cannot be known. She was a hardened optimist, and because of her cheerful courage she appeared to many like a favorite of fortune on whom good things regularly fell. Fortunate indeed she was, but chiefly in her power of discovering a soul of good in things evil. Hope in her view is,

The paramount duty that Heaven lays
For its own honor on man's suffering heart.

Yet I must let it be seen that she had her full share of hardships and was abundantly acquainted with grief. Moods of despondency came to her as truly as to others, and she did not hesitate to express them. I have purposely included several such utterances among her letters. But she was not absorbed or misled by them. * * * she put her mind elsewhere than in her moods, and these soon took their suitable place. To duty she gave herself gladly, counting it the voice of a friend, and in its exhilarating companionship she found a way through even physical ills. Her 'radiance' was therefore no product of ignorance, but of a deeper insight into things human and divine. She often quoted some lines of Emerson's which well describe her own mood of meeting good and ill; only she understood them as expressing no mere Stoicism but the Christian's joyous acceptance of a complex and hallowed world:—

Let me go where'er I will,
I hear a sky-born music still.

It sounds from all things old,
It sounds from all things young;
From all that's fair, from all that's foul,
Peals out a cheerful song.
It is not only in the rose,
It is not only in the bird,
Not only where the rainbow glows,
Nor in the song of woman heard;
But in the darkest, meanest things,
There alway, alway, something sings.

In 1879 Miss Freeman went to Wellesley as Professor of History. The college was only four years old and under the firm sway of its founder, Mr. Henry F. Durant. But his ideas for this new institution were cast in a large mold and Miss Freeman was attracted by an opportunity so congenial to her natural gifts:

"Mr. Durant held all the authority, and his keen eye early discovered the force of Miss Freeman. In her first year he said to one of the trustees, 'You see that little dark-eyed girl? She will be the next president of Wellesley.' Though frequently they did not agree, her independence did not alienate him, but appeared to make him trust her the more. He loved the strong. Often he sought her out, talked with her on historical and literary matters, explored her ideas of teaching, and bore from her opposition which others feared to give. The prophecy of her future which I have just quoted was made shortly after the following clash.

"Mr. Durant had called her attention to a member of the senior class as one 'who was not a Christian,' and directed Miss Freeman to go and talk with her 'about her soul.' He was a man already past sixty, accustomed to be obeyed, and she a girl of twenty-four; but she flatly refused. He demanded her reasons. She explained how disrespectful such direct assaults on one's personality are, and how generally ineffective. She said that to do such a thing would be contrary to her whole mode of intercourse with students and might well shake their confidence in her. In short, she would not do it. He insisted, and for a time she feared the resistance would cost her her place. But after the painful affair was over he never referred to it again, except by treating her with ever-increasing trust. On her side, too, admiration for Mr. Durant held firm through all their differences, and ceased only with her life."

* * * * * * * * * * *

"Of her success as a teacher it is hardly necessary to speak. The interest which she aroused in history is well known. She gave it a freshness and vitality which have become traditional at Wellesley, and so organized her department that it has remained one of the most influential in the college. But where the time was found for study and planning, I cannot imagine. She must have lived at a killing pace. From her note-books I find that her regular work consisted of fifteen hours a week of history, a daily Bible

class, charge of a portion of the domestic work, office hours each day as adviser to the senior class, and the oversight of her assistant in history. To this she added once a week throughout the winter a public lecture on some historical subject. All this work, too, was carried on in the grief and bodily weakness caused by her sister's death."

A little more than two years later she became full president and during the six years of her administration the young college came into its own:

"Seeking to raise the rank of Wellesley until it should be equal to that of any New England college, she found herself hampered by lack of fitting schools, by a loose system of admission on certificate, by lack of accommodation in college buildings for suitable numbers, and by consequent lack of funds. She found her teachers too few, badly chosen and badly paid, burdened with excessive routine work, and needing to be more solidly organized into departments. She found meager laboratories and library, no provision for physical training, and little connection between the college and the learned and social world outside. At the close of her administration these deficiencies had disappeared, without leaving debt behind." * * *

"She was no revolutionist, but out of almost any humdrum and disheartening conditions she would contrive to evolve life. Or do I wrong her in speaking of contrivance? Was it rather that her believing and creative mind saw nothing of what others counted humdrum and disheartening, being altogether occupied with the ideal hid within? It may be so. She took her duties lightly and once exclaimed to the president of another college, 'Isn't it fun to be a president?'"

Quite as remarkable as her administrative ability was the intimate and wholesome personal influence which she exerted upon the entire student body. Professor Palmer records a few of the great number of incidents which have been sent to him by her former students:

"Her memory for names and faces was phenomenal. On my second visit to her office I volunteered my name and was met with the quick response, 'Yes, I know.' It was said that by the end of the first week of the college year she knew every one of her girls by name, and it was a pleasure to her to recognize them at all times, within doors or without.

"So blind she was to our shortcomings, so unerring in finding the good that was in us! Gentle, womanly, responsive, and enthusiastic, with a genius for friendship and affection, she has sent uncounted numbers of us from her presence inspired to do the thing which was at the highest limit of our powers. It was her unshakable belief in the best side of our natures that made her op-

timism inspiring. In the heat of her intense idealism every objecting, hindering doubt was fused into a passion to do the work she knew we could do. Who of us will ever forget that flexible and endearing voice, or the beauty which poured from her smile, look, and gesture?"

"At one of the Faculty meetings in the first years of her presidency, when some grave academic questions were being discussed without much prospect of being brought to a conclusion, Miss Freeman was called to the door and found there the housekeeper of Dana Hall who insisted on seeing Miss Freeman. She had a carriage waiting to take her to Dana Hall to see the dress rehearsal of a French comedy which was soon to be given. The humor of the situation struck Miss Freeman. Returning to the room, she announced to the assembled professors that she had been called away on pressing business for an hour, and requested one of them to take the chair. Gleefully she drove to Dana Hall, flashed in at the performance, laughed stealthily for half an hour, and came back to the tired Faculty, blithe and breezy, to swing the discussion on to a prompt conclusion."

The latter half of this fascinating biography possesses if possible, even greater charm than that of the years previous to her marriage. Her husband refers to this part of her life as her years of "self-expression." In those fourteen years of supreme happiness every varied quality of her nature seemed to express itself radiantly. The brief record of three "Sabbatical years" spent at different times in Europe is full of delightful pictures:

"Mrs. Palmer was an excellent loafer. I had some misgivings on this point at first, remembering how perniciously habituated she was to industry. In going abroad I felt that my chief object must be to teach her to eat, sleep, and loaf. But she required no teaching and took to all these useful arts instinctively. In fact, they had been the secret of her past endurance. She never worried. When a job was completed, or not yet ready to attack, she turned her mind to other things. During her severest times at Wellesley she slept soundly and immediately. Once in later life, after a public address, when she was about to take a train for another engagement, a worn woman pressed forward with the question, 'Mrs. Palmer, how are you able to do so much more than other persons?' The time only permitted a witty epigram, but she packed it with truth. 'Because,' she answered, 'I haven't any nerves nor any conscience, and my husband says I haven't any backbone.' A prosaic letter came the next day inquiring whether one could altogether dispense with a conscience. She could, when work was over. Into a holiday no schoolgirl of twelve ever carried a lighter heart. Her very aptitude for business fitted her also for recreation, since whatever was appropriate to the moment, even idleness, got at once her full attention. Such intentional methods of es-

caping responsibility were greatly assisted too by the native nimbleness of her physical senses, her response to natural beauty, the vivacious interest she took in every moving thing, and her disposition to fill small matters with romance."

One who would appreciate what self-expression meant to such a woman as Mrs. Palmer must read the story of the absorbing activities which found their center in her hospitable home at Cambridge, and from that home, led out into seemingly every avenue of human need. Her guidance was constantly sought in educational problems by institutions as well as by individuals. Her correspondence was enormous and through it she exerted an incalculable influence. After her death Professor Palmer received nearly two thousand letters "from statesmen, schoolgirls, clerks, lawyers, teachers, country-wives, outcasts, millionaires, ministers, men of letters, a heterogeneous and to me largely an unknown company, but alike in feeling the marvel of her personality and the loss her death had cost them." And so her life spent itself with a spontaneity born of the richness of her nature and when the end came she looked upon death as she had long regarded it:

"We make too much of the circumstance men call death. All life is one. All service one, be it here or there. Death is only a little door from one room to another. We had better not think much about it, nor be afraid for ourselves or for those who are dear to us; but rather make life here so rich and sweet and noble that this will be our Heaven. We need no other till He comes and calls us to larger life and fresh opportunity."

OFFICERS OF CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE
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THE BANNER OF 1908.

The beautiful banner of the Tennyson Class is finished and will be in the custody of the class at Chautauqua for unveiling at the appropriate time. The committee, of which the class president, Dr. S. C. Schmucker, is chairman, has rendered this service most gladly and the tastefully executed banner shows the careful thought and artistic appreciation which have entered into its preparation. Dr. Schmucker gives the color scheme so that distant classmates may, by the aid of imagination, visualize their standard. The banner, which was made by H. L. Kilmer and Company of Philadelphia, is thirty-six by forty-eight inches in size. It has a broad central panel of plain white silk upon which is painted a portrait of Tennyson. At the top of the panel is embroidered in high relief in gold letters "Tennyson Class" and below the portrait "1908." There are two side panels of white moiré antique silk with embroidered rose stalks of exquisite design in high relief. The back of the banner is in red satin of the color of the class rose, and the motto of the class is painted here in gilt letters.

The cost of the banner, sixty dollars, is very moderate and the banner funds will quickly reach the necessary pro-

portions. Those members who cannot be at Chautauqua but who would like to have a share in class enterprises may send any contributions, however small, to the class treasurer. Class spirit is distinctly promoted by such evidences of the interest of far away members. The address of the Secretary and Treasurer is Miss S. E. Ford, 169 Court St., Binghamton, New York.

Another interesting item of class news is the report of Miss Una Jones, the committee of one on a portrait of Tennyson for the class room. She has secured an excellent copy of the etching by Rajon, one of the greatest of portrait etchers. It will be an effective addition to the furnishings of the class room.

A SWISS TOUR.

For Chautauquans who cannot, like Mrs. Gilpin, "go abroad for joy" during the summer, it is quite possible to look about and find a feast at home. In view of our study of Modern Europe next year, a preliminary jaunt into Switzerland during the month of August may appeal to many. Professor Oscar Kuhns, who will be remembered by many readers for his charming book on Italian poetry, has long made the study of Switzerland one of his particular avocations, and for the August CHAUTAUQUAN he has arranged a personally conducted reading journey through the wonderland of the Alps. This will be a special number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN and with the reading of certain specified books to be announced in August, the "Reading Journey in Switzerland" will become a seal course.

Many of our readers, graduates and others, are finding rare pleasure in the various Reading Journeys offered by the C. L. S. C. A member in Maryland who has been studying the special course in the Bible now proposes to take up the Reading Journey through Palestine. She plans to take later the "Journeys" through Japan and China and Korea.

REUNION OF CLASS '96.

The list of class tablets to be placed this summer is growing. The president of '96 writes that a letter sent out to members of the class brought a prompt and generous response, over one hundred dollars being contributed. The tablet will bear the name of the class, "Truth Seekers," its emblem the Greek lamp and by special request, the words "Seaton Memorial" will be added to recall the services of Mr. John A. Seaton, for many years the beloved president of '96. The architect of the Hall, who has general supervision of the entire decorative scheme, will indicate some fitting way in which this wish of the class may be recognized without interfering with the artistic effect of the general design. Special dedicatory exercises will be held by the class during Recognition Week and the occasion will doubtless bring together many members.

NOTES.

1908 diplomas will find their way to many of the summer Chautauquas. The circle at Beloit, Kansas, reports a large class to graduate at the neighboring assembly.

In response to a circle asking for music suitable for class day exercises in an American year, it is suggested that a collection of songs by the late Edward MacDowell would offer some very fitting selections. Mr. MacDowell was America's greatest writer of songs and a circle might well aid in making his work familiar to a wider audience.

A good deal of quiet influential work in spreading C. L. S. C. ideals goes on at the hands of enthusiastic Chautauquans. One such member from Massachusetts sends for an extra copy of Miss Bates' American Literature with the comment, "Though not able this year to do regular work in a club, I have tried to interest several of the young people with whom I come in contact, in different parts of the course, and hope that good results may be reaped another year. Personally the work has been a source of great enjoyment."

It will be good news to graduates who have been interested in Miss Spencer's series on American Painting to know that a special outline course on the history of art is in preparation and will be ready in the fall. This will be in the form of a study pamphlet available for clubs and graduate circles who have access to libra-

ries and want to take up a general survey of the subject beginning with the Italian Renaissance. The course will be restricted to painting and sculpture, the first year's course coming down to the close of the eighteenth century and a second course considering sculpture and painting in the nineteenth century. The study pamphlet provided for the course will contain lessons, questions and a bibliography, the price $1.00.

The Jamaica, L. I., Chautauqua Alumni who have achieved a reputation for hard study write, "Our Civil Government course is delighting us all. It is just exactly what we wanted and we greatly appreciate the work that Mr. Bestor did for us in arranging it." This is one of the C. L. S. C. special courses and the pamphlet outlining the work can be secured from the office at Chautauqua for one dollar.

From Shelbyville, Ill., the members of the Class of 1910 write: "We have a fine class and are doing good work. We may send you a picture of our class sometime. We are pretty well up on our examination papers and are looking forward to a grand time Recognition Day, August, 1910."

OUR MODERN EUROPEAN YEAR.

One naturally turns from the study of America to the consideration of another country, with a certain newly aroused curiosity. The survey of our own national traits and achievements has added something to our former point of view, so that we may be expected to regard our European neighbors more intelligently than heretofore. If we have discovered flaws in our own scheme of things, perhaps they too have their troubles. If we are inclined inclined to be jubilant over our national successes, who knows but what they have an equal amount of family pride. A Modern European Year, therefore, following an American course, seems a logical and wholesome order:

Prof. Oscar Kuhns, Author of "A Reading Journey Through Switzerland," in the August CHAUTAUQUAN.

The first book of the course, "Foundations of Modern Europe," is by Emil Reich, a Hungarian, a student of history and a keen observer of tendencies and traits in present day Europe. He has been a most acceptable lecturer before the University of London and his book, which the C. L. S. C. has adopted for this year, has a fresh and vivid quality which makes the great facts of European history stand out. Four chapters devoted to Napoleon sketch the great points of his character and the nature of European conditions at that time with striking effect. How these influenced the rise of Germany, a country of such large import in the world today, it is worth while to understand. The

source of its power and its present position will be clearly shown.

In contrast with this study of historic facts and tendencies, the second book of the course, "Seen in Germany," will present in concrete and picturesque fashion typical conditions in the Fatherland today. American readers will enjoy seeing the strong points of their neighbors across the sea and profiting by their progress. We shall observe such typical institutions as the Army, the German Workingman, a University Laboratory, Scientific Government Institutions, etc.

"Studies in European Literature," the third book of the course, will consist of a series of brief studies of great European masterpieces, French, German, Norwegian, and Belgian. One cannot expect to exhaust such a field in a brief work of this sort, but as an introduction to the literature of Modern Europe, the survey will be most important and the book will be valuable as a basis for more detailed study of the authors which especially attract the reader, or with whose work he may feel particularly unacquainted. Careful analysis of some of the works of the great dramatists whose ideas are exciting so much interest at the present time are included, and bibliographies attached to each chapter will tempt readers to further exploration.

The scientific element of the course is represented by "Man and the Earth" by the recent well-known scientist, Professor N. S. Shaler of Harvard, whose charm of style made his work keenly enjoyed by a great constituency interested in scientific problems as they affect every day conditions. Some of the subjects which he discusses are the latent sources of power in the earth, our future coal supply, etc.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN three striking series will offer tempting subjects for study. "The Friendship of Nations" will show how the world is steadily moving toward peace. The slow evolution of nations, their changing com-

mercial attitude, the growing spirit of coöperation, the influence of ethical ideas, tolerance in religion, etc., all these complex forces are making for peace and it will be an interesting study to analyze them.

Close to Germany lies little Holland which, with the exception of Greece, has taught the world more than any other one state. In politics and commerce and art she has a great record. Overshadowed politically today, her vital forces are far from being depleted. Her twentieth century artists are men of creative power and exquisite art, and the nation is doing its share in working out progressive schemes for the best welfare of its people. "A Reading Journey in Holland" will give a richly illustrated series of articles on the country today, with a plan of study and special programs which will introduce readers to the great past and present tendencies of this interesting people.

The greatness of the art of Holland demands special consideration and a separate series of studies will be published entitled "Great Dutch Artists." This series will be prepared by a skilful teacher and art critic who will make clear to Chautauqua students the principles upon which the art of Holland has reached such a high development. Abundant illustrations will enable the reader to apply these principles at every step. Graduate circles wishing to specialize upon Holland will find every facility offered for their guidance.

A BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR NEXT YEAR'S COURSE.

The following supplementary book list bearing upon next year's course was recently sent to every Chautauqua Circle. It is given here for the benefit of individual readers, many of whom will enjoy making a somewhat superficial acquaintance with these books during the summer, so that when the time comes they may be able to turn to them with a certain feeling of acquaintanceship. The mere title of a book often has a distinctly formal sound but after we have glanced through its pages, inspected its illustrations

and caught a glimpse of the author's style, we feel as if we had been introduced to an attractive personality whose acquaintance we may cultivate with pleasure. It is an important part of our education to know what books have been written on a given subject so that we may know where to turn for information when the occasion arises.

(a) "Foundations of Modern Europe," and the Study of Modern Germany.

The Historical Development of Modern Europe, C. M. Andrews, 2 vols. in one, student's edition, $2.75. *Napoleon the First,* J. H. Rose, 2 vols. in one, $3.00. (The best of the shorter lives of Napoleon.) *Life of Napoleon,* Ida M. Tarbell, $2.50. (Popular treatment, very fully illustrated.) *Napoleon: The Last Phase,* Lord Rosebery, $3.00. *The Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era,* J. H. Rose, $1.25 net. *My Scrap Book of the French Revolution,* E. W. Latimer, $2.50. *The French Revolution,* Shailer Mathews, $1.00. *Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century,* F. M. Warren, $1.00. *A Short History of Germany,* Ernest F. Henderson, 2 vols. in one, $2.50 net. *Bismarck and German Unity,* Munroe Smith, $1.00. *Bismarck and State Socialism,* W. H. Dawson, $1.00. *The German Workman,* W. H. Dawson, $1.50 net. *Modern Germany,* O. Eltzbacher, $2.50. *Germany of Today,* Maximilian Harden, 3v. *The Young Emperor,* Harold Frederic, $1.25. *The German Emperor,* Charles Low (Public Men of Today Series), $1.25. *The Kaiser as He Is,* Henri Noussanne, $1.25. *Glimpses of Modern German Culture,* $1.25, and *German Ideals of Today,* Kuno Francke, $1.50 net. *French and German Socialism,* R. T. Ely, 75c. *German Life in Town and Country,* W. H. Dawson, $1.20 net. *Atlas of European History,* Dow, $1.50. (Excellent historical maps brought down to date.) *Europe in the Nineteenth Century,* H. P. Judson, $1.25. *Italy Today,* Bolton King, $3.00 net. *Men and Cities of Italy,* Joy, Latimer and Marriott, 75c. *Mazzini,* Bolton King, $1.50 net. *Cavour,* Countess Cesaresco, 75c. *World Politics,* Paul S. Reinsch, $1.25 net. *Germany,* Wolf von Schierbrand, $1.00. *Imperial Germany,* Sidney Whitman, 75c. *Germany,* S. Baring-Gould. *Prince Bismarck,* Charles Lowe, $1.00. *The Puritan in England, Holland and America,* Douglas Campbell.

(b) "Modern European Literature:"

La Chanson de Roland, edited by Léon Gautier, Old and Modern French, text on opposite pages, 40c. *Song of Roland,* done into English verse, by J. O'Hagan, 75c. *Chanson de Roland,* translated by L. Rabillon, $1.25. *The Song of Roland* with verse renderings of typical passages, Way and Spencer, 40c. *Montaigne's Essays,* edited by William Hazlitt, 3 vols., $2.40. *Life of Molière,* Oliphant and Tarver, $1.00; also lives by H. L. Trollope, $2.50 net, and by Chatfield-Taylor, $3.70 net. *Hotel de Rambouillet and the Précieuses,* $1.00, and *Molière,* 85c net, by Leon H. Vincent. *Early French Poetry,* Besant. *Poets and Poetry of Europe,* H. W. Longfellow, $5.00. *Life of Victor Hugo,* Frank T. Marzials, 40 cents. *Translations from the Poems of Victor Hugo,* Henry Carrington, 40c. *Victor Hugo's Letters,* edited by Paul Meurice,

2 series, $3.00 each. *Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century,* F. M. Warren, $1.00. *Prosper Merimée's Letters,* $1.25. *Merimée, Lamartine and George Sand* (Bric-a-Brac Series), $1.00. *The Odd Number,* Guy de Maupassant, $1.00. *Daudet's Works,* published in sixteen volumes, $1.00 each. *Life and Adventures of Dumas,* Percy H. Fitzgerald. *Life of Dumas,* Arthur F. Davidson, $3.75 net. *Life of Dumas,* H. A. Spurr, $2.00 net. *A Century of French Fiction,* B. W. Wells, $2.00. *Life of Honoré de Balzac,* Frederic Wedmore, 40 cents. *French Literature,* Brunetiére, $2.00. *George Sand,* E. Caro, translated by M. B. Anderson, 75 cents. *Lives of Zola,* by R. H. Sherard and by E. A. Viztelly, $3.50 net. *Life and Writings of Lessing,* James Sime, 2 vols., $4.50. *Life of Schiller,* Thomas Carlyle, 75 cents. *Goethe and Schiller,* H. H. Boyeson, $2.00. *Lives of Schiller,* Nevinson, 40 cents, and James Sime, $1.00. *Life of Heine,* William Sharp, 40 cents. *Heine's Poems,* selected, Mrs. Kroeker, 40 cents.

(c) "The Friendship of Nations":

Sebastepol, Tolstoy, 75 cents. *The Future of War,* Jean de Bloch, 65 cents. *Lay Down Your Arms* (Die Waffen Nieder), Baroness von Suttner, 75 cents. *Newer Ideals of Peace,* Jane Addams, $1.25. *The Federation of the World,* Benjamin F. Trueblood, 75 cents. *The Human Harvest,* David Starr Jordan, 40 cents. *World Organisation,* Raymond L. Bridgman, 60 cents.

(d) Holland, Travel:

Holland and Its People, Edmondo de Amicis, $2.00. *Holland and the Hollanders,* David S. Meldrum, $2.00. *Holland Described by Great Writers,* Esther Singleton, $1.60 net. *A Wanderer in Holland,* E. V. Lucas, $1.75 net. *An American in Holland,* Wm. Eliot Griffis, $1.50. *Young People's History of Holland,* $1.50 net. *Brave Little Holland and What She Taught Us,* 75 cents; *The Pilgrims in Their Three Homes,* Wm. Eliot Griffis, 75 cents. *Dutch Life in Town and Country,* P. M. Hough, $1.20 net. *Belgium and Holland,* Karl Baedeker, $1.80 net. *Sketching Rambles in Holland,* George H. Boughton, $2.50. *Thumb Nail Sketches in Holland,* George Wharton Edwards, $1.00. *An Inland Voyage,* Robert Louis Stevenson, $1.00. *Well Worn Roads of Spain, Holland and Italy,* F. Hopkinson Smith, $1.25. *Poems of Places, Holland,* Longfellow, $1.00. *Holland and Scandinavia,* A. J. C. Hare, $1.00. *Through the Gates of the Netherlands,* Mary E. Waller, illustrated, $3.00 net.

(e) Holland, History and Biography:

Naval Heroes of Holland, J. A. Mets. *William the Silent,* Ruth Putnam, 2 vols., $3.75. *William the Silent,* Frederic Harrison, 75 cents. *Rise of the Dutch Republic,* by John Lothrop Motley, 3 vols, $3.00. *History of the United Netherlands,* Motley, 4 vols., $8.00. *Life and Death of John Barneveld,* Motley, 2 vols., $4.00. *Humor of Holland,* A. Werner, $1.25.

(f) Holland: Art:

Apollo, the History of Art Throughout the Ages, S. Reinach, 600 illustrations, new edition. 1907. $1.50 net. (The best general history of Art.) *Old Masters and New,* Kenyon Cox, $1.50 net—suggestive essays on Rembrandt, Hals, and other artists. *Handbook of Painting. German, Flemish and Dutch Schools.* Edited by J. A. Crowe, 2 vols, $9—the best survey of Dutch painting in English. (The two best books in French and German are *Histoire*

de la Peinture Hollandaise, Henry Havard, and *Die Blüte de Malerei in Holland,* A. Phillipi.) *The Old Masters of Belgium and Holland,* E. Fromentin, $3.00—English translation of the famous French work *Les Maitres D'Autrefois,* one of the most important books on painting since the days of Leonardo da Vinci. *The Peel Collection and the Dutch School of Painting,* Sir Walter Armstrong, illustrated, $2.00 net—one of the best books of criticism for Dutch landscape and genre painting. *Old Dutch and Flemish Masters,* Engraved by Timothy Cole, $7.50. (Critical notes by John C. Van Dyke and comments by the engraver of great value.) *Frans Hals,* Gerald S. Davies (Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture), $1.75—also an enlarged edition of the same work, octavo size, with added text and illustrations, $14.00. *Rembrandt: His Life, His Work, and His Time,* Emile Michel, $7.50 net. (English Translation in one volume with more than three hundred illustrations—the best life of Rembrandt.) *Rembrandt: A Study of His Life and Work,* G. Baldwin Brown, illustrated, $2.00. *Rembrandt: A Critical Essay,* August Bréal, 75 cents.

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

"I've found a delightful little book that I should like to recommend to the Round Table," remarked a member from New Jersey as she produced a small volume in black and gold. "It is called 'Twenty-Three Tales from Tolstoy.' For the last few Sunday afternoons, I've been reading it aloud to my children. In fact, the book seems to appeal to people of seven or seventeen or seventy! The collection has been edited by Aylmer Maude and includes various groups of tales: Stories for Children, Russian Folk Tales, Stories written for the people, etc. It's the sort of book that every family ought to own."

"Let me call your attention also," said Pendragon, "to a recent book by Rene Bazin entitled 'The Nun' which portrays a tragedy of the present day, growing out of the hardships incident to the new French law with reference to the Catholic schools. M. Bazin is one of the foremost French novelists of the day. You will want to become acquainted with his work. Maeterlinck's 'Life of the Bee' you ought also to know. It is already reckoned as the masterpiece of this writer whose thought is fresh and creative. In view of our journey into Holland, you can explore to advantage the work of Maarten Maartens. Of his short stories of Dutch peasant life an excellent collection is 'My Poor Relations.' His longer novels include 'God's Fool,' 'The Greater Glory, 'Joost Avelingh,' and others."

"In view of our coming Modern European year," he continued, "you'll find it worth while to read some of the important older works of fiction that will help create an atmosphere for you

next year. How many of you have read anything by George Sand? If not, let me commend you to make the acquaintance of Consuelo. It is long, but worth your attention. Alphonse Daudet has some charming volumes: The inimitable 'Tartarin of Tarascon' and 'Tartarin on the Alps,' and his delightful short stories entitled 'Letters from my Mill.' If you don't know Balzac read his 'Eugenie Grandet' and 'Cæsar Birotteau.'"

"The summer assembly season is now fully under way and there are indications of widespread interest in 1908's graduation and in the new class of 1912. I see we have with us a Baltimore member who can perhaps report on the 'Chautauqua Night' held at the time of the Methodist General Conference in that city." A four-page leaflet illustrated with a picture of the Aula Christi at Chautauqua was shown by the speaker who referred to the fact that a large number of these tasteful little invitations had been issued. "A fine audience gathered in the First M. E. Church on the evening of May 21st. Dr. W. L. Davidson, known as the leader of many of our strongest Chautauquas, presided at the meeting and the two addresses by Chautauqua's Chancellor, Bishop Vincent, and our C. L. S. C. Counselor, Bishop H. W. Warren, were not only reminiscent of the early days but as is characteristic of the two men, made the audience feel the note of optimism which is inseparable from Chautauqua. Almost the entire audience lingered to shake hands with the speakers, look over the announcements for next year, and compare notes on Chautauqua experiences."

"Your reference to Chautauqua optimism," said Pendragon, "is so well illustrated in this recent letter from a member of the Class of 1908, that I think I must give you a few selections. She writes humorously:

"'It is with swelling heart—and head, that I complete this last examination! Four years ago I thought "that's a good while. I wonder if I can do it?" But now when I look back how short the time seems and what a delightful and profitable time these four years have been! I have read three years as a lone reader and one year as a member of a circle, and while there is much to be said in favor of the circle, there is also much in favor of the lone readers. They are generally members of a family and in these days of clubs galore the tendency is to too much "clubbing" and not enough of the *quiet* of the home. So, dear Chautauqua, just here is where I would like to tell you, if I could get words adequate to describe it of the intense pleasure which this lone reader derived from her Chautauqua reading, right in a home with a husband whose strenuous life is such that he could not take the entire course, but who read with me the "French Revolution" by Shailer Mathews and pronounced it "just the very thing for a busy man like him." Also "English Government" by Moran, and "Races and Immigrants in America" and "Newer Ideals of Peace" by Jane Addams. So he

has gotten a great deal from it and has also been a great inspiration. I have had also a daughter in high school and college who found great help from my Chautauqua books, and we grew quite "chummy" through the bond of sympathy in which a common interest joined us. If, after this four years, we do not live and think and talk on broader lines, we are no true Chautauquans. I trust I shall be able to graduate with my class (Hurrah, '08 forever) this coming August. It will be an event in this life of mine.'"

"I think we also have a case of rather extreme optimism in the 1909 class," commented a member from Tennessee. "The reader I refer to is traveling at present, but anticipating the time when she will be at Chautauqua for graduation, 'not so very far distant, only seventeen months between.'"

"We are getting some valuable comments upon the books of last year," said Pendragon, as he indicated a file of reports. "We won't call for these today but will tabulate the results later so that we can all get the benefit of the various opinions and discover how far they are typical expressions, showing the general attitude of our readers. Among the newer circles that we are especially glad to welcome to the Round Table today is one of fourteen members at Temple, Texas. Many of the members are planning to spend the summer at Chautauqua so their second year will doubtless start off with a fresh accession of zeal. In Parma, Idaho, is a village of three hundred and fifty people. The circle has had a very prosperous year in spite of the fact that the town is without library facilities and some of the members live in the country. But we have discovered in more than one instance that country circles have developed an amount of initiative which has secured for them many of the advantages of larger communities. Another of the new circles dwells in Keeseville, New York, where we are told that local conditions are difficult for 'in summer everybody goes away or entertains and in winter the climate makes attendance at meetings a test of bravery much of the time.' Nevertheless, the circle has plans for enlarging its membership next year. Its leader is a Chautauqua reader of some years' standing. She has experienced the stimulating influence of seal courses and hopes to be able to show her fellow Chautauquans the difference between four years of systematic reading and mere haphazard dipping into things."

"We have literally almost used up THE CHAUTAUQUAN in our meetings," remarked the leader of the Danville, Kentucky, Circle. "We followed the suggested programs partly but added to them things we especially wanted. First we took a good view of American History and found it helpful and interesting. Then, in addi-

tion to our regular discussions of the week's work, each member of the class had one long paper during the year. The subjects were Americans of the nineteenth century who had contributed to progress along social or humanitarian lines. We had Jacob Riis, Peabody, Gallaudet, Judge Lindsey, and others like them. Our roll call was often in keeping with the long paper. For example, when we had Gallaudet, roll call was responded to by giving some sign in the mute language. I wish we might have in the September CHAUTAUQUAN a list of subjects for long papers along the line of the year's work. I have a class of eighteen young ladies, next year a circle of married ladies will be formed, and I shall order their books in August."

Pendragon noted the suggestion for subjects and assured the Kentucky circle that this and every other request designed to add to the efficiency of the work was greatly appreciated.

"I understand," he continued, "that the Outlook Circle of Mt. Vernon, New York, has been doing a little civic work for the town. We are especially interested in these ventures and should like particulars." Mr. Le Page, the delegate, then explained their plan of campaign. "This is the second time that we have tried to do something for the community," he said, "and it has been interesting work. This year we secured Mr. Wilbur F. Smith, game warden of Fairfield County, Connecticut, for a lecture on birds; especially on their preservation. We then issued a mimeographed letter to teachers explaining the nature of the lecture, its more than one hundred colored lantern slides, and the educational character of the work. The Superintendent and Board of Education endorsed our plans. We put the price of tickets at ten cents each and through our committee handed to each teacher a complimentary ticket and a copy of the letter. Different places for the sale of tickets near the various schools were indicated so that the children could get them readily. The lecture was given in the chapel of the First M. E. Church and an enthusiastic audience of four or five hundred, chiefly boys and girls, showed their appreciation of Mr. Smith's delightful talk and the remarkably effective lantern slides. Perhaps some of the younger circles," the delegate added, "may be interested in our general organization which has proved a very effective working machine. We have officers, all of whose duties are obvious: President, Vice President, Secretary-Treasurer, Press Correspondent, and Critic. I think the work of Press Correspondent has been one of our most important duties, for we make sure that the papers get the exact facts and they give us plenty of space. The same is true of the notices of the Edelweiss Circle and our townspeople know that the two Chautauqua

circles are working for the best interests of the individual and the community. Our two meetings each month are arranged by a single committee of three. At the end of the month, this committee appoints a chairman who selects two others to serve with him for the next month. Each committee in this way has a limited amount of administrative work and the programs gain in variety. In a record book all programs are arranged and recorded with the names of the persons to whom the different numbers are assigned. In this book also we keep a complete list of our members with class, address and telephone number so that the facts are always at hand. We are proud of the fact that after five years of hard work we have succeeded in arousing interest among the men. We have eight in our circle this year, nearly a fourth of the whole number."

Reminiscences of the unique Valentine day celebrated by the Norwalk, Ohio, circle were next contributed by one of the members of that ingenious company. "At our afternoon meeting," said the delegate, "we had our regular program with a very interesting paper on Poe and critical comments by one of the circle. For our valentine celebration we invited the young ladies' C. L. S. C. which meets in the evening, and the gentlemen of our own C. L. S. C. households. The accessories of the banquet you can readily picture for yourselves. Our program was planned to promote general jollity. You really need to have been there to appreciate the points. One of our number succeeded in constructing a valentine on the basis of 'What foreigners think of us,' which stirred her audience to frequent applause. Recitations, charades, original rhymes and all the devices known to an energetic literary club were employed and an amusing take-off of the year's serious work was an attempt by another of our members at 'Adoption of the Alien.' Her idea was to harmonize the present jargon of alien names by a scientific method designed to fit into the new scheme of things. Uncle Sam has been renaming the Indians. Why shouldn't somebody try her hand at the foreigners! The result might have been expected. The ancient Babel kept emerging in spite of all efforts to subdue him, the clever schemes of the leader developing quite immoderate hilarity upon the part of the circle!"

"While we are considering special days," said Pendragon, "I must call your attention to this report of Peace Day as celebrated by the Indianapolis Circle. A number of important topics were discussed. The work of Baroness von Suttner, the story of the settlement of the Argentine Boundary, accounts of the recent Hague

Conference, the Nobel Peace Prize, and other related topics. Such a meeting gives an opportunity to bring together many different aspects of a single big question like this and in consequence it makes a deep impression."

"We had intended to have a Peace celebration early in the year," commented the delegate from Creston, Iowa, but realizing that we had a special Peace Day in May, we changed the date of our program. Our circle, 'The Progressives,' invited the 'Cosmopolitans' and the 'Society of the Hall in the Grove' to meet with us and share in the program. Roll call was responded to with recitations of an appropriate character. One of the members of the Cosmopolitan Circle gave an admirable review of 'Newer Ideals of Peace.' As musical numbers we had Oliver Wendell Holmes' Hymn of Peace and a unique musical entertainment portraying the history of our country as suggested in our songs. At the end of which a local flavor was given by the song of our own state, 'Iowa, Beautiful Land.' The program did not conclude with the banquet for we had a supplementary list of toasts with Mrs. Recknor, President of the Cosmopolitans, as toastmistress. Here are the topics which were brought out with great felicity by our different speakers: Peace in the Home, Peace in Women's Clubs, The Chautauqua League, The Nobel Peace Prize, Chili-Argentine Treaty, As Others See Us, Peace Among Neighbors."

The note books of the Round Table delegates recorded not a few entries while the speaker, Mrs. Whipple, was making her report, and they asked the privilege of quizzing her for further particulars when she concluded. Pendragon improved the opportunity to remind the Round Table of the series of studies to appear in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for next year entitled "The Friendship of Nations." "You'll be surprised," he said, "to discover how surprisingly the world has gone forward in the last few decades. In spite of some terrible wars, there are steadily growing economic and humanitarian and commercial interests which, all combined, are certain in the long run to work out peace. I once heard Miss Jane Addams in discussing the national child labor bill, express regret that our great country could not have taken up the vital question of child labor purely on its own merits for the sake of the children and the country. Instead, it had to win its appeal by means of the political pressure which could be invoked in behalf of the interstate commerce law. But as she said, it means something to secure it even by such an unenlightened method. So we must be glad of the Friendship of Nations even if we discover that sentiment and ethics seem often to have less to do with it than self interest.

A copy of the year book of the Hawthorne Circle of Andover, New York, was contributed to the archives of the Round Table. "This is the result of home talent you will notice," explained the delegate. An elaborate year book with a printer's bill attached seemed inadvisable for us, but this little pamphlet has answered every purpose and we feel quite attracted by its air of simplicity. The pages are typewritten but they are bound in a cover of firm white paper, which seems to cover up their slight irregularities and the knot of ribbon keeps them well in hand. I can commend the method to other circles who want a year book that costs but little."

"The Americanism of our circle," said a Kentucky delegate, "expressed itself by a special musical celebration for our closing meeting this year. We read with special pleasure the account of the Wa Wan Society and the sketch of Edward MacDowell in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. So we arranged for an entire program of MacDowell's music in order to become somewhat acquainted with his songs and at the same time gain some adequate idea of his qualities as a composer. We have, in our city, two singers of unusual excellence and interpretative ability, Mr. and Mrs. Matthews, whom we were able to secure. We extended the opportunity to the general public, tickets being sold for twenty-five cents, and after the concert the Chautauquans and their guests held an informal reception. We were glad to have this opportunity to pass on to the community some of the privileges of our American year."

The last speaker was the delegate from the circle at Punxsutawney, Pa., who unrolled a newspaper clipping of considerable proportions. "I am not going to read all this," she reassured the company, for I know that closing meetings are apt to be much alike and the charm is in the personal touches which each circle gives to such a gathering. We met in a spacious private house, which was necessary for our membership numbers over thirty. Heretofore we have gathered at a hotel, but the new plan was, of course, far more delightful though it made large demands upon our hostess. Roses and carnations and electric lights gave a charming setting for the long tables, and the program which was arranged in quite elaborate fashion, was made up of separate parts tied with silk cord. The intricacies of this program suggested a sense of mystery which was not altogether dispelled in penetrating farther. Each member found a sentiment on his card indicative of his duties or his character, and before the evening was over the circle had to submit to a roll call in which each proper name lent itself to some play upon the word. The orderly arrangement of the menu saved us from what otherwise might have been one of the

most difficult feats of the program—eating in Esperanto! I give you a copy of the program and you can see the situation! Mercifully there were no 'electives:'

MENU.

Vinbero Frukto kaj Cerizos

Arbo kaj Gardeno Frukto — Peklos

Premata Birdo — Frostata Suko

Buterata Pano

Pizos in Skatolos — Saratoga Pomos de la Tero

Salato — Fromago Pajlo

Glacio Kremo kaj Frago

Angelo Kuko

Cokolado Kuko

Salata Migdalo — Fromago

"Most of the speakers who responded to toasts appeared to be more or less affected by the new language, the menu having given them a species of inoculation. Some secretly confessed that the feelings of human brotherhood engendered by the universal language seemed to develop slowly, but they were assured by the more glib and blithesome that the first stage was apt to be antipathy, and that this was not a fair time to be judged 'as others see us.' Perhaps I may add in closing that we've had a splendid year of work and living as we do in the heart of the soft coal region, we've had great opportunities to study our newly arrived countrymen. The text given to one of our speakers who responded to the toast for 1907-8 I leave with you, 'The flighty purpose never is o'ertook unless the deed go with it.'"

POCAHONTAS. Tecumtha. Pp. 90. 7¼x4¾. $1.00.
The author of this drama in five acts pleads timeliness for his subject by reference to the Jamestown Exposition and what it commemorates. For readers of the Chautauqua course the subject is particularly timely just now, though the treatment of historical facts is somewhat free. While the work is not devoid of quality, it never touches a very high mark. Its dedication, beginning:

"To honor those whose statesmanship and light
Construct the Panama Canal we write" . . .

strikes one as not having very well subdued "the big ditch" to the uses of literature. However, the book is better than the dedication and may be commended to young readers for its simplicity.

RURAL SCHOOL AGRICULTURE. Charles W. Davis. Pp. 267. 5x7. New York: Orange Judd Co. $1.00.
A manual of experiment upon a subject that is deservedly receiving increased attention year by year. The intent is to impress upon rural school pupils the idea that rural pursuits are worthy of study; and that the study of them yields both intellectual and material advantage. On the reviewer's table the book seems admirable for content, clearness of explanation, and illustrative material including many pictures. Doubtless it will be found valuable in school use.

LEADING AMERICAN SOLDIERS. R. M. Johnston. Pp. 371. 8x5. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75 net.
The author admits that a book on this subject is at present like a thing out of due time—that the trend of sentiment is toward disarmament and peace. Yet affairs of war cannot lose practical interest for us till universal and secure peace is realized; and even then the glory of men who did heroically and well according to the exigencies of their own times will not be taken from them. The writer has evident grasp not only of tactics but of what is meant by military strategy; he is judicial in his attitude alike toward Lee and Grant, toward Scott and McClellan. In either praise or censure his comments are well considered and strike the unprejudiced layman as authoritative. If in one instance he calls into question the wisdom

even of Lincoln, he does so as a sincere critic with reasons. Washington, Green, Taylor, Scott, Andrew Jackson, Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, McClellan, Meade, Lee, "Stonewall" Jackson, Joseph E. Johnson, each is presented not in a biography but by an account of his military career.

ENGLISH POETRY: 1170-1892. Selected by John M. Manly, Professor and Head of the Department of English, The University of Chicago. Ginn & Co., Boston. Pp. 580. $1.50 net.

This is the best single volume anthology of English verse which has ever come to the attention of the reviewer. Its excellences are various but among them may be noted the rare catholicity of taste in the selection of the poems, the comprehensiveness of the survey of the entire field of English verse, and the compactness and portability of the book. The collection will prove invaluable to teachers of literature in that it is free from those gaps which mar most of the text book collections: every period is here well represented. A further merit is the fine selection of Middle English verse. Here are preserved poems and parts of poems inaccessible to the average reader and teacher, poems which are not over-difficult of reading by reason of the foot-notes which explain the obsolete words. Altogether, the volume is a rare one, containing a surprising amount of matter carefully presented, a volume which will be welcomed by the general reader as well as by the student and teacher.

EXPOSITION IN CLASS ROOM PRACTICE. By Theodore C. Mitchell and George R. Carpenter. The Macmillan Co.: New York. Pp. 376. Price 70 cents.

Of the making of rhetorics there is no end, doubtless because so few of them give satisfaction. The handbook upon exposition by Mr. Mitchell and Professor Carpenter for the use apparently of mature students in preparatory schools suffers perhaps from over-elaborateness of treatment and unnecessary subdivision of topics, but it is well supplied with examples for class exercises and will be useful to teachers of English composition.

THREE ACRES AND LIBERTY. Bolton Hall. Pp. 435. Illustrated. The Macmillan Company. $1.75 net.

The very title of this book has a seductive sound. Who of us does not dream of liberty—a liberty vaguely associated with the world's work, yet unhampered by the hours of drudgery which force themselves upon even the most creative and joyous of workers. Nevertheless Mr. Bolton Hall's scheme does not offer complete emancipation. His liberty is given a sufficiently firm attachment to mundane conditions by grounding it upon "Three Acres." This liberty is for the nature lover who wishes to live his life in the open,

and is willing to work hard and do his share of drudgery, provided only he may choose his own surroundings and work with the beautiful and interesting products of the great world's garden. His book is not a scheme for an isolated life, but a practical plan for making a social, suburban environment productive of all the wealth which nature will lavish when we discover her methods. The first effect of this book is to make the reader want to try experiments. But the chapter on "Results to be Expected" will give just the dash of cold water necessary to develop his caution in setting out on a new enterprise. Following this come practical suggestions on methods, tools, equipment, capital, etc.; kitchen gardening, raising of fruit, poultry, etc., the cultivation of flowers for the city market, raising of bees—in fact such a variety of possible occupations seem to spring from the soil that one feels assured of a new future for the city dweller already reacting from the spell of the flat building with its modern conveniences but with no chance for contact with mother earth. The chapter on "Coming Profession for Boys" will give all parents and friends of boys a chance for meditation. An appendix with bibliography and some useful statistics adds to the very practical character of the book, which is already meeting with very wide acceptance.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

LOVE PURIFIED. Celesta Ball May.. 80 pp. 6½x9. $1.00. Chicago: The Christian Century Company.

THE DANCE OF LOVE. Dion Clayton Calthrop. 321 pp. 5½x7½. $1.50. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

THE LUCK OF THE DUDLEY GRAHAMS. Alice Calhoun Haines. 300 pp. 5½x7½. $1.50. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

THE TREASURE OF THE CANYON. Joseph B. Ames. 300 pp. $1.50. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

THE FLIGHT TO EDEN. Harrison Rhodes. 313 pp. 5½x7½. $1.50. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

GUNHILD. Dorothy Canfield. 342 pp. 5½x½. $1.50. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

MA SOEUR HENRIETTE par Ernest Renan with vocabulary. William F. Giees. 92 pp. 4½x6½. 35 cents. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

MEISTER MARTIN DER KUFNER UND SEINE DESELLEN von Hoffman. R. H. Fife, Jr. 132 pp. 4½x6½. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

FRENCH SHORT STORIES, edited by Douglas Labaree Buffum. 491 pp. 5x7. 90 cents. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

DIE AHNFRAU by Franz Grillparzer. Edited by Frederick W. J. Heuser, A. M., and George H. Danton, Ph. D. 257 pp. 4½x6½. 80 cents. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

DARWINISM TODAY. Vernon L. Kellogg. 403 pp. 6x9. $2.00 net. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

WAGE-EARNERS' BUDGETS. Louise Bolard More. 280 pp. 6x9. $2.50 net. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

A TURNPIKE LADY. Sarah N. Cleghorn. 257 pp. 5½x7½. $1.25. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

WORDS TO THE WISE AND OTHERS. Ellen Burns Sherman. 301 pp. 5½x7½. $1.50. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

ANCIENT SOCIETY or Researches in the Lines of Human Progress from Savagery Through Barbarism to Civilization. Lewis H. Morgan, LL. D. 554 pp. 5½x8. $1.50. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

THE LIFE OF THE FIELDS. Richard Jeffries. 320 pp. 4½x7. 75 cents. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Company. 1907.

NATURE NEAR LONDON. Richard Jeffries. 286 pp. 4½x7. 75 cents. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Company. 1907.

THE OPEN AIR. Richard Jeffries. 313 pp. 4½x7. 75 cents. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Company. 1907.

RHEINGOLD, Wagner's Music-Drama retold in English verse. Oliver Huckel. 103 pp. 5x8. 75 cents. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Company. 1907.

THE JAPANESE NATION IN EVOLUTION. William Eliot Griffis, D. D.; L. H. D. 408 pp. 5½x8. $1.25 net. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Company. 1907.

THIS MYSTICAL LIFE OF OURS. Ralph Waldo Trine. 190 pp. 5x8. $1.00 net. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Company.

THE MAKING OF A TEACHER. Martin C. Brumbaugh. 351 pp. 6x8. $1.00 net. Philadelphia: The Sunday School Times.

THE INFINITE AFFECTION. Charles S. Macfarland. 174 pp. 5½x7. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. 1907.

ELEMENTS OF PLANE AND SPHERICAL TRIGONOMETRY. James Howard Gore, Ph. D. 200 pp. 5½x8. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1907.

THOUGHTS ON BUSINESS. Waldo Pondray Warren. 237 pp. 5½x8. $1.25. Chicago: Forbes & Company. 1907.

LIVING BY NATURAL LAW. John Edwin Ayer. 141 pages. 5x7. Seattle: Lowman & Hanford. 1906.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF PUBLIC SPEAKING. Walter Dill Scott. 222 pp. Philadelphia: Pearson Brothers.

IN THE DESERT OF WAITING. Annie Fellows Johnston. 36 pp. 4x7. Boston: L. C. Page & Company. 1905.

THE THREE WEAVERS. Annie Fellows Johnston. 48 pp. 4x7. Boston: L. C. Page & Company. 1905.

A MANUAL OF PERSONAL HYGIENE, Proper Living upon a Physiologic Basis by American Authors. Edited by Walter L. Pyle. 440 pp. 5½8. $1.50 net. Philadelphia and London: W. B. Saunders Company. 1907.

DAS FRAULEIN VON SCUDERI von Hoffman. With introduction and notes by Gustav Gruener. 105 pp. 5x6½. 35 cents. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

SPANISH CORRESPONDENCE. E. S. Harrison. 157 pp. 5x7½. $1.00. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 1907.

JEAN FREDERICK HERBART and Education by Instruction by Gabriel Compayre. Translated by Maria E. Findlay, B. A. 140 pp. 5½x8. 90 cents net. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Company. 1907.

Summer School Courses at Chautauqua, New York

Season of 1908

DEPARTMENT OF INSTRUCTION.

JOHN H. VINCENT, Chancellor. GEORGE E. VINCENT, President.
ARTHUR E. BESTOR, Gen'l Dir. PERCY H. BOYNTON, Secretary.

EDUCATIONAL COUNCIL.

Miss JANE ADDAMS, Hull House, Chicago.
Mr. MELVIL DEWEY, Pres. Amer. Library Institute.
PRES. B. P. RAYMOND, Wesleyan University.
PRES. G. STANLEY HALL, Clark University.

SUMMARY OF COURSES.

The following is merely a list of courses offered in the thirteen schools of Chautauqua Institution during the summer of 1908. A complete catalog, giving a description of each course, will be mailed on application to Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, New York. This catalog will give full information as to tuition fees and expenses, etc.

I. ENGLISH LITERATURE.

Prof. William Norman Guthrie, Mr. Edward Howard Griggs, Mr. Percy H. Boynton, Prof. Sherlock B. Gass.

1. English Lyric Poetry. 2. Goethe's Faust. 3. Shakespeare. 4. Dante's Divine Comedy. 5. Six Great Novels. 6. High School English. 7. Principles and Practice of Composition. 8. Composition and Rhetoric.

II. MODERN LANGUAGES.

FRENCH.

M. Benedict Papot, Dr. G. E. Papot, Mr. H. R. Vandeputte.

1. Beginning French, Natural Method. 2. Tutoring Class in Natural Method. 3. Beginning French Elementary Grammar. 4. Tutoring Class Elementary Grammar. 5. Interpretation of Easy French Texts. 6. Intermediate French Grammar. 7. Intermediate French, Natural Method. 8. Syntax and Elementary Composition. 9. Balzac. 10. Advanced French Prose. 11. French Literature. 12. Advanced Phonetics. 13. Children's Classes. 14. Beginner's Course. 15. The French Club.

SPANISH AND ITALIAN.

Mr. L. E. Bonilla, Prof. Rodrigo H. Bonilla.

16. Elementary Spanish Grammar. 17. Elementary Conversation and Reading. 18. Advanced Spanish. 19. Spanish Club. 20. Elementary Italian Grammar.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF ESPERANTO.

Mr. Edmond Privat, M. Benedict Papot.

21. Beginning Esperanto, Natural Method. 22. Beginning Esperanto, Grammar. 23. Advanced Esperanto, Natural Method. 24. Composition and Syntax. 25. Normal Course of Esperanto for Esperanto Teachers. 26. Elocution and Conversation.

GERMAN.

Prof. E. J. Fluegel, Mr. W. S. Blakeslee.

27. Elementary German Grammar. 28. Elementary German Reading and Conversation. 29. Tutoring Class in Elementary German. 30. Intermediate German Composition and Syntax. 31. Intermediate German Reading and Conversation. 32. Advanced German, German Classics. 33. Grillparzer and Hebbel. 34. German Novels of the 19th Century. 35. Children's Class in German. 36. Lectures in German. 37. German Teachers' Conferences. 38. German Table, German Entertainment and German Club.

III. CLASSICAL LANGUAGES.

Prof. Donald Cameron.

1. Beginning Latin. 2. Teachers' Advanced Training Course, (a) Studies in Cæsar, (b) Studies in Virgil's Aeneid. 3. College Latin Courses, (a) Selections from Ennius, Catullus, Tibullus, Horace, Ovid, Phaedrus, Seneca, and Martial; (b) Terence's Adelphi. 4. Greek Literature. 5. Elementary Greek. 6. Latin Teachers' Conferences.

IV. MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE.

Dr. Nels J. Lennes.

1. Elementary Algebra. 2. Plane Geometry. 3. Plane Trigonometry. 4. College Algebra. 5. General Pedagogy of Mathematics.

PHYSICS.

6. Physics I. 7. Physics II. 8. Physical Laboratory Work I. 9. Physical Laboratory Work II.

CHEMISTRY.

Prin. E. R. Whitney.

10. Chemistry. 11. Chemistry Laboratory.

NATURE STUDY AND AGRICULTURE.

Miss Alice G. McCloskey, Mr. A. A. Allen, Prof. Charles H. Tuck.

13. Lecture Course in Nature Study for Teachers and Parents. 14. Field Work. 15. Bird Work. 16. Gardening.

V. PSYCHOLOGY AND PEDAGOGY.

President E. B. Bryan, Prof. Charles H. Judd, Miss Emily Bradshaw, Miss Alice Louise Harris, Miss Frances Moshier, Mrs. Mary Boomer Page, Miss E. Josephine Rice, Dr. James A. Babbitt, Miss Sarah Freeman.

1. Educational Principles. 2a. Educational Psychology. 2b. Application of Psychology to Education. 3. Elements of Psychology.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

4. Methods for Teachers of Grammar Grades. 5. Methods for Teachers of Primary Grades. 6. Rural School Methods. 7. Hand Work for Elementary Schools.

THE KINDERGARTEN.

8. Professional Kindergarten Course. 9. Kindergarten Preparatory Course.

COURSES IN SPECIAL METHOD.

10, 11. Public School Drawing. 15, 16. Black Board Sketching.

CLASSES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.

19. Kindergarten. 20. The Nursery Kindergarten. 21. The Boys' Club. 22. Girls' Club. 23. German and French.

VI. RELIGIOUS TEACHING.

Prof. John E. MacFadyen, Rev. Alfred E. Lavell, Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut.

1. Studies in Psalms and Prophets. 2. Teaching the Bible. 3. International Relations B. C. 4 and 5. A repetition of courses 2 and 3. 6. The Sunday School Teachers' Bible Class. 7. The Sunday School Teachers' Normal Class. 8. Bible Stories to Children. 9. Addresses on Palestine.

VII. LIBRARY TRAINING.

THE CHAUTAUQUA LIBRARY SCHOOL

Is designed for librarians of smaller libraries and library assistants who cannot leave their work for the extended courses offered in regular library schools, but who can get leave of absence for six weeks of study to gain a broader conception of their work and a general understanding of modern methods and ideas.

LECTURES.

Dr. Melvil Dewey will be general director of the school. Mary E. Downey, librarian of the Public Library, Ottumwa, Iowa, will be resident director with Sabra W. Vought, Librarian of the University of Tennessee and Alice E. Sanborn, Librarian of Wells College as instructors. The work of the staff will be supplemented by special lectures from time to time and by Library Week, July 13-19.

COURSE OF STUDY.

The course is systematically planned to accomplish the most possible in six weeks, each requiring 40 hours of study. Regular lectures and lessons will include: cataloging, classification (decimal system), accessioning, author numbers, shelf-listing, book selection and buying, reference work, bibliography, library building and equipment, library organization and administration, statistics and accounts, book-making, binding and repair, note taking, library handwriting, mechanical preparation of books for the shelves, serials, loan systems, library extension, work with children, schools, study clubs, etc.

The Chautauqua and neighboring libraries give the students practical work under direction of their instructors. Practice work, following instruction, is carefully revised. Visits are made to Buffalo and other places of interest and benefit to library workers.

VIII. DOMESTIC SCIENCE.

Miss Anna Barrows, Miss Elizabeth Darrow, Miss Helen M. Day, Miss Lura Duntz.

Household Economics, Demonstration Lectures, Regular Classes. 1. School Room Cookery. 2. Sanitation and Dietetics. 3. Practical Home Cooking. 4. Household Management. 5. Sewing. 6. Shirt Waists.

IX. MUSIC.

PUBLIC SCHOOL MUSIC.

Hamlin E. Cogswell.

Normal Training School for Supervisors and Grade Teachers. (A) Supervisors' Course. (B) Grade Teachers' Course.

MANDOLIN, GUITAR, AND BANJO.

Mr. Myron A. Bickford.

PIANO.

Mr. William H. Sherwood, Miss Georgia Kober, Mrs. E. T. Tobey.

ORGAN.

Mr. Henry B. Vincent.

VOICE.

Mr. Frank Croxton, Mrs. Marie Zimmerman, Mr. Charles E. Washburn, Mrs. Eleanor Stark-Stanley.

VIOLIN.

Mr. Sol Marcosson.

X. ARTS AND CRAFTS.

Mr. Frank P. Lane, Mr. Raymond Thayer, Mr. Grove R. Branch, Miss Evelyn M. Griswold, Miss Beatrix Griswold, Miss E. E. Garrabrant, Miss Claire A. Babbitt, Miss Arianna E. Kelly.

CERAMICS.

Mrs. L. Vance Phillips, Miss Fannie M. Scammell.

ITALIAN ART.

Mr. W. B. Stevens.

1. The Painters of Italy. 2. The Madonna in Art. 3. The Art of Venice.

XI. EXPRESSION.

Prof. S. H. Clark, Mrs. Emily M. Bishop, Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker, Miss J. L. Newlin.

1. First Year Normal Course—(a) Voice Culture and Vocal Expression, (b) Gesture According to Psychologic Laws, (c) Literary and Dramatic Interpretation, (d) Artistic Rendering. 2. Second Year Normal Course. 3. Public School Teachers' Course in Reading and Methods of Teaching It. 4. Reading Aloud. 5. Vocal Culture. 6. Non-Professional Course. 7. Interpretative Course in Poetry of Robert Browning. 8. Modern Drama as the Interpretation of Life. 9. Group Courses.

XII. PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

Dr. J. W. Seaver, director.

1. The Normal Course. 2. General Gymnastics. 3. Medical Gymnastic Exercises. 4. Health Culture. 5. Outdoor Sports and Games. 6. Aquatics.

XIII. PRACTICAL ARTS.

BUSINESS TRAINING.

Mr. W. H. Covert, Mr. C. R. Wells.

SHORTHAND AND TYPEWRITING.

Mr. W. D. Bridge, Miss Bridge.

PARLIAMENTARY LAW.

Classified Program for 1908

Special and Annual Events.

July 2	Opening of the Assembly	Aug. 1-8	United Mission Conference
July 4	Opening of Summer Schools	Aug. 4	Old First Night Exercises
July 4	Summer Schools Reception	Aug. 12	Pennsylvania Day
July 8	Annual Prize Spelling Match	Aug. 14	The Annual Question Box
July 20-25	Esperanto Congress	Aug. 18	Feast of Lanterns
July 23	International Peace Day	Aug. 19	Recognition Day Exercises

SERMONS.

Sunday Morning	July 5	Prof. J. E. McFadyen
Sunday Morning	July 12	Pres. E. Y. Mullins
Sunday Morning	July 19	Dr. W. L. Watkinson
Sunday Morning	July 26	Pres. Graham Taylor
Sunday Morning	August 2	Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman
Sunday Morning	August 9	Pres. J. D. Moffat
Sunday Morning	August 16	Bishop John H. Vincent
Sunday Morning	August 23	Dr. Robert Stuart MacArthur
Sunday Morning	August 30	Prof. Herbert L. Willett

LECTURES.

Religious.

Devotional Hours	July 2-3	Bishop John H. Vincent
Devotional Hours	July 6-10	Prof. J. E. McFadyen
Devotional Hours	July 13-17	Pres. E. Y. Mullins
Devotional Hours	July 20-23	Dr. W. L. Watkinson
Devotional Hours	July 27-31	Pres. Graham Taylor
Devotional Hours	Aug. 3-7	Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman
Devotional Hours	Aug. 10-14	Pres. J. D. Moffat
Devotional Hours	Aug. 17-21	Pres. Henry Churchill King
Devotional Hours	Aug. 24-28	Rev. Joshua Stansfield

The Earliest Prophets and Their Message — Aug. 3-7 — Prof. C. M. Cobern

(1) Amos; (2) Hosea; (3) Isaiah the Prince; (4) Other Prophetic Voices and the Fall of Nineveh; (5) Jeremiah.

Four Great Monks — Aug. 3-7 — Rev. A. E. Lavell

(1) Benedict of Nursia; (2) Hildebrand; (3) Bernard of Clairvaux; (4) Martin Luther.

The Ethics of Personal Life — Aug. 3-8 — Prof. Edward Howard Griggs

(1) The Aim of Life; (2) The Problem of Moral Failure; (3) Self Culture and Social Service through a Vocation; (4) The Problem of Personal Relationship; (5) The Educational Opportunity; (6) The Modern Religious Problem.

Sociological and Historical.

Address	July 3	Miss Jane Addams
On an Old School House	July 11	Bishop John H. Vincent
Everyday Life in France. Social and Domestic Oddities	July 13	Miss Aimee Tourgee
The German Kaiser	July 14	Mr. Arthur E. Bestor
Holy Week in Southern France	July 15	Miss Aimee Tourgee
Temperance Legislation at Washington	July 21	Mrs. Margaret Dye Ellis
Lecture	July 22	Prof. J. H. Scanlon
Lecture	July 23	Rev. Howard H. Russell
Temperance Progress in the South	July 24	Rev. G. W. Young
Work of a Modern Charity Organization Society	July 25	Mr. Frederic Almy
The Constitutional Limits of Federal Regulation of Business	July 27	Dean James P. Hall
The Constructive Policy of Governmental Supervision of Corporations	July 27	Hon. Herbert Knox Smith
The Value of the Food and Drugs Act	July 28	Dr. H. W. Wiley
Postal Laws and Parcels Post	July 28	Mr. Chas. William Burrows
Property and the Press	July 29	Mr. Norman Hapgood
The Place of the Party in Modern Politics	July 31	Hon. Everett Colby
Federal Control and the Doctrine of States Rights	July 31	Hon. William A. Chanler
The Romance of Papyrus Hunting	Aug. 5	Prof. C. M. Cobern
The Pathfinder	Aug. 8	Rev. H. M. Chalfant
English Views of England (1) Peeps at Parliament through a Woman's Eyes; (2) Politics and Progress in Great Britain; (3) The Mother of Parliaments; (4) The English Woman of Today; (5) The Sketch-book of an Englishwoman.	Aug. 10-14	Mrs. Philip Snowden
Miscellaneous Lectures (1) Civics, Ethics, and Pathology of the Automobile; (2) Supposed Miracles; (3) Disappointed Candidates for the Presidency.	Aug. 10-13	Dr. J. M. Buckley
Address	Aug. 12.	Gov. Edwin S. Stuart
The Pittsburg Survey	Aug. 15.	Mr. Robert A. Woods
The Making of Modern Europe (1) The Permanent Work of Napoleon; (2) The Unification of Germany; (3) The Liberation of Italy.	Aug. 17-20	Prof. C. F. Lavell
Social Experiments in Britain and British Colonies (1) Old Age Pensions (New Zealand and Australia); (2) Arbitration and Conciliation; (3) Land and the Landless (England, New Zealand, and Canada); (4) Sweating, its Cause and Cure (New Zealand, Australia, and England); (5) Problem of the Unemployed (England, New Zealand).	Aug. 24-29	Hon. Percy Alden

Literary.

Contemporary Poetic Drama (1) Ibsen; (2) Hauptmann; (3) Maeterlinck; (4) Echegaray; (5) Rostand; (6) Philips and Yeats.	July 6-11	Mr. William Norman Guthrie
Critics of the Later Victorian Age	July 14	Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller
Parnassus from the Foothills	July 16	Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller
James Russell Lowell	July 21	Prof. Paul M. Pearson
Rudyard Kipling	July 23	Prof. Paul M. Pearson
Modern French Literature (1) The Hotel de Rambouillet and its Famous People; (2) The French Academy and its Influence; (3) Molière, the Dramatist and the Man; (4) Madam de Sévigné; (5) Voltaire.	Aug. 17-21	Mr. Leon H. Vincent
The Social Meaning of the Novel (1) Jane Austen; (2) Thackeray; (3) Dickens; (4) Hawthorne; (5) Meredith.	Aug. 24-28	Mr. Percy H. Boynton

Pedagogical and Scientific.

Lecture	July 2	Prof. J. M. Tyler
History and Aims of the Lake Placid Conference on Household Economics	July 6	Mrs. Ellen H. Richards
Lectures	July 7, 17	Mr. Melvil Dewey
Requirements of the Modern House	July 8	Prof. J. M. White
Lectures	July 9, 13	Pres. George E. Vincent
Modern Theories of Diet	July 10	Mr. Horace Fletcher
Lecture	July 14	Mrs. H. L. Elmendorf
Lecture	July 16	Miss Katharine L. Sharp
The School and the Library	July 15	Supt. W. H. Elson
An Ounce of Prevention	July 18	Mrs. Clara Z. Moore
Finding Oneself	July 25	Mrs. Clara Z. Moore
Sub-Conscious Mysteries of Life	Aug. 1	Dr. James A. Babbitt
The Essential Elements of Good Music	Aug. 1	Mrs. F. E. Hughey
Messages of 19th Century Scientists (1) Woehler—The Unity of the World; (2) Lydell—God in His World; (3) Darwin—The Blessing of Adversity; (4) Agassiz—The Sacredness of Truth; (5) Van Beneden—The Curse of Idleness.	Aug. 17-22	Prof. S. C. Schmucker

ILLUSTRATED LECTURES.

Our Wounded Friends—The Trees	July 2	Mr. John Davey
Indian Corn	July 9	Miss Anna Barrows
Faust in Music and Art	July 16	Mr. N. J. Corey
An Operatic Retrospect	July 18	Mr. N. J. Corey
The Federation of the World	July 23	Mr. Hamilton Holt
The Haunts of Shakespeare	July 28	Dr. W. L. Davidson
The Heart of the Alps	July 30	Dr. W. L. Davidson
The Milk Supply of our Cities	Aug. 1.	Dr. Jay W. Seaver
A Gondola Ride around Venice	Aug. 5	Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut
Military Life in Germany	Aug. 13	Dr. Henry Zick
The Forest	Aug. 22	Hon. James S. Whipple
Ideal Conditions of Labor	Aug. 26.	Hon. Percy Alden

MUSIC.

Religious Music.

Sacred Song Service, 7:45 p. m. each Sunday; Elijah, Mendelssohn, July 24; Messiah, Handel, Aug. 7; Martyr of Antioch, Sullivan, Aug. 11.

Band Concerts.

Open Air Band Concerts, usually Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday evenings at 7, July 13 to August 24.

Special Concerts

July 15	Nonsense Songs	Aug 5	Ballad Concert
July 17	American Composers' Night	Aug. 15	Joan of Arc, Gaul
July 25	Patriotic Concert	Aug. 17	Faculty Concert
July 27	Joan of Arc, Gaul	Aug. 21	Manzoni Requiem, Verdi
July 31	Manzoni Requiem, Verdi	Aug 24	Golden Threshold, Lehmann

Organ Recitals

Special Recitals	July 7, 9	Mr. I. V. Flagler
Special Recitals	July 20, 21	Mr. C. F. Morse
Special Recitals	Aug. 4, 6	Mr. Chas. E. Clemens
Special Recitals	Aug. 11, 13	Prof. G. W. Andrews
Special Days through season	* * *	Mr. H. B. Vincent

Artists' Recitals

Piano and Violin Recitals by Messrs W. H. Sherwood and Sol Marcosson Monday afternoons in Higgins Hall. Vocal recitals by Mr. Frank Croxton and Mrs. Marie Zimmerman on Thursday afternoons in Higgins Hall. A fee is charged.

READING HOURS AND RECITALS.

Reading Hours

Aunt Carey on Parliamentary Law	July 2	Mrs. J. F. Lewis
Aunt Carey on The Wooden Legged Captain	July 3	Mrs. J. F. Lewis
Reading Hours	July 6-10	Mrs. Emily M. Bishop
Reading Hours	July 20, 22	Prof. S. H. Clark
James Russell Lowell	July 21	Prof. Paul M. Pearson
Rudyard Kipling	July 23	Prof. Paul M. Pearson
Reading Hours	July 27-31	Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker
Reading Hours	Aug. 10-14	Miss Jane Herendeen
Reading Hours	Aug. 24-28	Miss Marjorie Benton Cooke

Recitals

The Scarlet Letter, Salvation through Suffering	July 14	Prof. S. H. Clark
Silas Marner—Salvation through Love	July 7	Prof. S. H. Clark
Les Miserables—Salvation Through Service	July 29	Prof. S. H. Clark
Love's Labor's Lost	July 11	Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker
The Servant in the House	Aug. 12	Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker
The Rivals	July 20	Prof. C. Edmund Neil
The Henrietta	July 21	Prof. C. Edmund Neil
Plantation Days in Song and Story	July 22	Prof. Paul M. Pearson
Lucrezia Borgia (Hugo)	Aug. 8	Mr. George Riddle
Selected Program	Aug. 10	Mr. George Riddle

Assembly Calender for 1908

Name of Chautauqua. *Assembly Dates.* *Manager.*

CALIFORNIA.

Pacific Grove, . July 12-25. Mrs. E. J. Dawson, Sec., San Jose, Cal.

Recognition Day, July 21. Speaker, W. C. Evans, D. D.

Special Features: John Sharp Williams, Mrs. Lenora Lake, Dr. Ira Laudrith, Cyclone Southers.

COLORADO.

Boulder, July 4-Aug. 14. F. A. Boggess, Sec.

Special Features: Miss Jane Addams, Dr. Charles Fordyce, Dr. Silas Neff, Hruby Brothers Quintette, etc.

Schools: Psychology and Pedagogy, Science, Primary Methods, Literature, Music, Oratory, Physical Culture, etc.

CONNECTICUT.

Pine Grove (Canaan), July 28-Aug. 5. E. C. Tullar

Recognition Day, July 30. Speaker, Rev. G. M. Brown.

Schools: Bible, Domestic Science, Nature, Elocution, Music. August 4-5, Sunday School Conference.

Plainville (Conn. Chaut. Assem.) July 21-29. B. F. Gilman, Sec.

Recognition Day, July 23.

Features: Prominent members of Political Parties to represent wants of Parties.

ILLINOIS.

Dixon (Rock River), Aug. 1-16. L. A. Beard. Supt. Polo.

Recognition Day, Aug 10. Speaker, Judge D. E. Mack.

Features: Gov. Hanly, Dr. Quayle, Wm. Sunday, Dr. Colledge, Lou. Beauchampe, Miss Brehms, Walt Holcomb, Frank Dixon, Maude Ballington Booth, Jacob Riis, Gen. O. O. Howard, Ex-Sen. Carmack, Chas. Payne, etc. First week, Temperance Institute; second week, Mission Study.

Havana, . July 30-Aug. 16. Jas. L. Loar, Mgr. Bloomington.

Recognition Day, Aug 7. Speaker, Dr. George E. Vincent.

Features: Innes Band, Gipsy Smith, Judge Ben Lindsey, Billy Sunday, etc.

Lithia Springs, Aug. 15-30. Rev. J. L. Douthit.

Recognition Day, Aug. 24.

Special Features: Gypsy Smith, Dr. Aked, Mrs. Snowden, Montaville Flowers, Whitney Bros. Quartet.

Petersburg (Old Salem), Aug. 5-20. Rev. J. M. Johnson.

Recognition Day, Aug. 15.

Special Features: Hon. John Sharp Williams, John Temple Graves, Billy Sunday, Rev. Geo. R. Stuart.

Pontiac, July 18-Aug. 2. A. C. Folsom.

Recognition Day, July 25. Speaker, Dr. E. L. Eaton.

Special Features: Gov. John A. Johnson, Gov. J. Frank Hanly, Gov. Hoch, Congressman Watson, Gypsy Smith, John Sharp Williams, Bishop W. McDowell.

INDIANA.

Kokomo, July 31-Aug. 9. Wm. E. Reuch, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 8.
Special Features: Gabriel Maguire, Father McCorry, Hon. W. I. Nolan, Ross Crane, Ralph Parlette, Hon. H. V. Adams, etc. Education Departments: Arts and Crafts, C. L. S. C. Round Table, Domestic Science.

IOWA.

Charles City, Aug. 3-15. Dr. A. D. Clark, Supt.
C. L. S. C. work conducted by Mrs. Chas. E. Risser. Special Features: Gov. Johnson, Gypsy Smith, Frederick Warde, Mrs. Maybrick, Will Carleton, etc.

Clarinda, Aug. 5-14. W. E. Whittaker, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 13.
Special Features: Wm. A. Sunday, Mrs. Pickett, Judge Ben Lindsey, Hon. John Sharp Williams, Mrs. Ballington Booth.

Clear Lake, July 27-Aug. 3. Dr. W. W. Carlton, Sec., Mason City.
Special Features: Dr. W. A. Quayle, Will Carleton, Gov. Hanly, Judge Brown.

Fort Dodge, Aug. 16-23. J. F. Monk, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 17. Speaker, Rev. M. S. Hughes.
Special Features: Dr. Montgomery, Frederick Warde, Alton Packard, Msgr. Tihen.

State Centre, June 27-July 5. W. L. Newman, Secretary.
Recognition Day, July 4. Speaker, Dr. Frank Gunsaulus.
Special Features: Gov. Hanly, Strickland Gillilan, Dr. James S. Montgomery, Dr. John M. Driver, Father Daly, Paul M. Pearson, etc.

Waterloo, June 22-July 2. R. N. Corwin, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 1. Speaker, Mrs. Charles Risser.
Special Features: Gov. John S. Johnson, Gov. Frank Hanly, Bishop Fallows, George R. Stuart, Sylvester Long.

KANSAS.

Cawker City (Lincoln Park Assem.), Aug. 1-16. Robert Good, Sec., Jamestown.
Recognition Day, Aug. 11.
C. L. S. C. work conducted by Miss Meddie O. Hamilton. Special Features: Bishop Griswold, Bishop Weekley, Pres. C. J. Kephart, Everett Kemp. Various Educational Departments.

Clay Center (Clay County Chautauqua), Aug. 7-16. H. W. Stackpole, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 13.
Special Features: Father Daly, S. A. Long, Guy Carleton Lee, Frank Dixon, Edmund Vance Cook, Geo. C. Peck, Dr. Geo. L. Robinson, Alton Packard.

Ottawa, June 15-26. Henry Durst.
Recognition Day, June 25. Speaker, Judge R. A. Burch.
Special Features: Gov. Frank Hanly, Gov. John A. Johnson, Rev. Geo. A. Stuart, Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut, Prof. Amherst Ott, Sunshine Hawks, etc.
C. L. S. C. Department conducted by Miss Meddie O. Hamilton.

Wathena, Aug. 8-16. A. W. Themanson, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 12. Speaker, Rev. M. F. Troxell.
C. L. S. C. Department conducted by Rev. M. F. Troxell.
Special Features: Will Carleton, Father Daly, Ed. A. Ott, Walter Holcomb, J. Adam Bede, Mrs. Pickett.

Winfield, July 6-17. A. H. Limerick, Sec., 119 E. 9th Ave.
Recognition Day, July 13.
Special Features: Sen. E. W. Carmack, Dean A. A. Wright, Judge Ben Lindsey, Mrs. Pickett, Leon H. Vincent, Dr. Samuel Garvin, Dr. Geo. L. Robinson.

MAINE.

Ocean Park (Lewiston), July 30-Aug. 12. L. G. Jordan, Sec., Lewiston, Mo.
Recognition Day, Aug. 6. Speaker, Prof. A. W. Anthony, D. D.
Special Features: Prof. Hugh Ross Hatch, Albert Armstrong, etc.

MARYLAND.

Mountain Lake Park, Aug. 4-28. W. L. Davidson, Mgr.
Recognition Day, Aug. 26. Speaker, Rev. D. W. Howell.
Special Features: Geo. R. Stuart, Gipsy Smith, DeWitt Miller, W. T. Corey, Frederick Warde, Mrs. Philip Snowden.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Northampton (Conn. Valley Chautauqua), July 7-17. Dr. W. L. Davidson, Mgr., 1711 Lamont St., N. W., Washington, D. C.
Recognition Day, July 14. Speaker, Dr. Charles F. Aked.

MISSOURI.

Carthage, July 2-9. E. H. Wyatt, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 9.
Special Features: Ex-Gov. Richard Yates, Alexander Corkey, Sen. Carmack, Gov. Harding, Rev. H. M. McDowell, Bill Bone, etc.

Mexico, July 19-26. Chas E. Stokes, 1123 E 12th St., Kansas City, Mgr.
Recognition Day, July 24.
Special Features: Geo. R. Wendling, Edmund Vance Cook, Sen. Tillman, Pamahasika's Birds, etc.

NEBRASKA.

Tecumseh, July 10-19. Dr. C. W. Graff, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 14. Speaker, Gen. John C. Black.
Special Features: Apollo Quartette, Frank G. Smith, Dixie Jubilee Singers, Dr. Montgomery, Ralph Bingam, Gilbert Eldridge.

NEW JERSEY.

Ocean Grove, June 14-Sept. 31. A. E. Ballad, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 31. Speaker, Bishop Wilson.

OHIO.

Bethesda (Epworth Park) Aug. 6-23. J. S. Secrest, Supt.
Recognition Day, Aug. 21. Speaker, Dr. W. O. Thompson.
Special Features: Bishop Hartzell, Gov. Hanly, J. W. Hill, D. D., Dr. A. W. Lamar, Dr. W. L. Davidson, Dr. J. J. Wallace.

Firelands Chautauqua, Aug. 1-9. Earl D. Holtz.
Recognition Day, Aug. 4.
Miami Valley (Franklin), July 17-Aug. 3. F. Gillum Cromer.
Recognition Day, July 31.
Special Features: Sen. J. P. Dolliver, Hon. John Sharp Williams, Weil's Band, Rev. W. A. Sunday, Rev. Geo. R. Stuart, Dr. Madison C. Peters.
Orrville, July 17-Aug. 2. Byron W. King, Pres., Pittsburg, Pa.
Recognition Day, July 30. Speaker, Rev. Dr. Elward.
Educational Departments: Bible Work, English, Normal, Physical Culture, Elocution.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Pennsylvania Chautauqua
(Mt. Gretna), July 3-Aug. 5. V. W. Dippell.
Recognition Day, July 30. Speaker, Gov. Stuart.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

Big Stone Lake Chautauqua, June 30-July 15. R. J. Hicks, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 10. Speaker, Frank Allan Peake.
Special Features: Hon. G. A. Gearhart, Dr. W. Robertson, Frank H. Gammel, etc.
Lake Madison, June 27-July 14. G. G. Smith, Pres.
Recognition Day, July 7.
Educational Departments: C. L. S. C., Elocution, Physical Culture, Bible School, Kindergarten, Sunday School Normal.

WISCONSIN.

Madison (Monona Lake), July 21-31. Jas E. Moseley, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 31. Speaker, Rev. D. W. Howell.
Special Features: Rev. Geo. R. Stuart, Mrs. Pickett, Gypsy Smith, Weil's Band.

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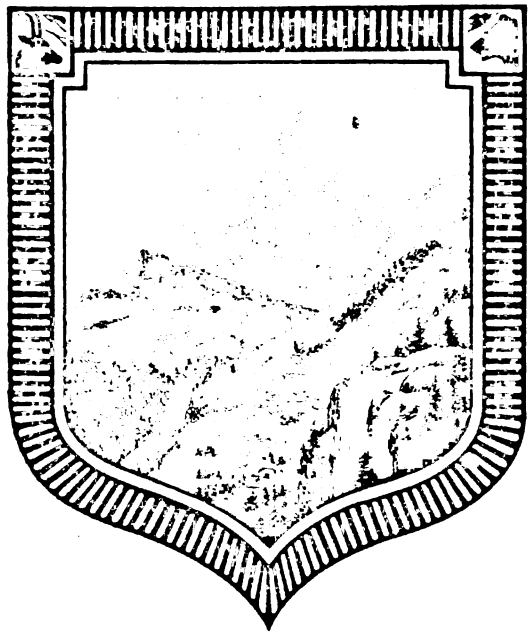

A READING JOURNEY THROUGH SWITZERLAND

CHAUTAUQUA PRESS CHAUTAUQUA, NEW YORK

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

THE MAGAZINE OF SYSTEM IN READING

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The Jungfrau from Interlaken—Bernese Alps.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Vol. 51 AUGUST, 1908 No. 3.

THE nomination of William H. Taft for the presidency by the Republican convention had long been a foregone conclusion, practically, and did not surprise the country when it came. Mr. Taft needed 491 votes to become the choice of the delegates and the party; he had 702 on the first ballot, the only one that proved necessary. The other favorite sons, even the really strong candidates, had made no progress in the weeks immediately preceding the convention, and when it met there was but one "if," one possible source of doubt in the way of Mr. Taft. A "stampede" for President Roosevelt was feared by some, hoped for by others, and declared not impossible by many impartial observers.

The stampede did not occur, and no really serious effort to start one was attempted, although the President's name was cheered for forty-six minutes on the second day of the convention, when Senator Lodge, the chairman, reviewed his services and spoke of his voluntary withdrawal from the field. There was plenty of Roosevelt sentiment in the convention, and the popularity of Rooseveltian policies with the delegates was emphatically, impressively demonstrated. But even those who preferred Mr. Roosevelt, who would have "broken away" from other candidates if they had the opportunity, saw that the coup could not be successfully accomplished. Senator Lodge helped to make this absolutely plain by his trenchant sentences on the question. He

was direct and candid and bold in raising the "third term" question and disposing of it in the following words:

"The President, who has led his party and the people in this great work, retires by his own determination from his high office on the 4th of March next. His refusal of a renomination, dictated by the loftiest motives and by a noble loyalty to American traditions, is final and irrevocable. Anyone who attempts to use his name as a candidate for the presidency impugns both his sincerity and his good faith—two of the President's greatest and most conspicuous qualities, upon which no shadow has ever been cast. That man is no friend of Theodore Roosevelt, and does not cherish his name and fame, who now from any motive seeks to urge him as a candidate for the great office which he has finally declined.

"The President has refused what his countrymen would have gladly given him. He says what he means and he means what he says—[cries of "We want him anyway"]—and his party and his country will respect his wishes—[cries of dissent from the galleries and applause among the delegates]—as they honor his high character and his great public services, but although the President retires he leaves his policies behind him, and to those policies the Republican party stands pledged."

With Roosevelt out of the race, the "logical" candidate was Mr. Taft, for years the intimate associate, the friend, the supporter of the President. The latter's strength is due to the belief that he will continue all that is essential in the Roosevelt policies. He is regarded as the most progressive candidate the Republicans could have nominated.

The platform with which the convention provided him and the party is not as radical as some of the delegates wished to make it. There was a minority report which favored amendments and additional planks, but it was voted down. On the other hand, the platform is far more radical than the one for which the conservative elements strenuously labored and fought before and at the convention. It is a platform which satisfies the candidate and the President, and which they had a hand in framing. It is comprehensive and advanced on some points. The Democrats and certain Republicans say, however, that it is indefinite in its vital planks, and this matter will be vigorously discussed in the campaign.

The important planks are those dealing with the tariff, trusts, railroad legislation, injunctions and labor legislation

generally, and postal savings banks. Revision of the tariff is promised, but along protectionist lines; modernization of the anti-trust laws is favored in the interest of safe, reasonable and useful combinations, but without surrender to injurious monopolies and improper restraint of trade; statutory limitation of the use of the writ of injunction, to prevent abuse and hasty action, is cautiously indorsed; postal savings banks are approved. In addition further railroad legislation, designed to complete the work of President Roosevelt in that direction, and to prevent stock watering and speculation issues, is demanded and approved.

In other words, the platform is interpreted by most Republicans as virtually saying—No backward steps, but several steps forward, further progress toward political and corporate honesty and publicity, and no retrogression in any direction.

The convention's action on the vice-presidency is generally regarded as a concession to the "defeated section," the minority, of the convention. Mr. James S. Sherman, of New York, has been a conservative, one of the so-called "standpatters," and a member of the "inner circle" of the Republican side of the House. He has had abundant experience in Congress and is a good parliamentarian. His business relations and the strategic consideration that he comes from New York, a state which campaign managers are always anxious to carry, also influenced the convention in selecting him after Hughes and Fairbanks had eliminated themselves and factional troubles in Iowa had ruled out both Senator Dolliver and Gov. Cummins.

The nomination of William Jennings Bryan by the Democratic convention was no surprise for the outcome was practically predetermined. The indicated Democratic ticket is such that a very lively and spirited campaign is expected by all. The issues are not, as we have often said, so fundamental as they were twelve or eight years ago, but there are issues, and they are not all too clear to require thorough discussion. There is

much speculation concerning the attitude of organized labor, of the colored voters in the northern states, of conservative Democrats who have opposed Mr. Bryan in the past and look upon Mr. Taft as a progressive and enlightened man from whom old-fashioned Democracy would have nothing to fear. There are other factors that render the campaign interesting and uncertain. But it is hoped that the political oratory and writing of the contest will be exceptionally fair, frank, and free from violence, rancor, and misrepresentation.

Congress and its Record

The first session of each Congress is long, the second is short. As a rule, little is done at the second session in the way of general legislation, for the many appropriation bills leave little time for discussion of debatable questions, the initiation of reforms, the adjustment of differences. If a Congress is to make a positive record of some distinction, the work must be done during its "long" session.

The present Congress may reverse this rule—or it may not. If it reverses it, several important bills will become law at the next session, after the presidential election. If it does not, its record will be exceptionally poor and barren. For at the session which came to an end in the last days of May very little was accomplished, in spite of eleventh-hour efforts in several directions. In fact, the press and all observers have been referring to the Congress as a "do nothing" body. That little "experimental" or "advanced" legislation would be enacted became clear early in the session. The President, it is true, urged a number of reform measures in addition and as supplemental to the work of the last Congress. He was particularly desirous that action should be taken on the trust question, the question regulating injunctions, the currency question, child labor, postal savings banks, and three or four other matters. He continued to send vigorous messages in favor of these things, but the congressional leaders had decided to "let

things alone" for a time, and they were not to be moved. The panic of last fall, the industrial depression, the approach of a national election, the acute differences between employers and organized labor over certain bills—these were among the grounds given for the policy of inaction. "Give us a rest," or "Let us alone," has been the cry of business bodies, even of such as declare sympathy with most of the President's reforms. This could not fail to influence the average member of Congress.

The upshot is that very little general legislation was enacted at the late session. An employers' liability bill was passed to replace that annulled by the Supreme Court, a temporary currency act was finally agreed upon, and the act applying the coastwise shipping laws to the Philippines—that is, prohibiting after a fixed date foreign ships from carrying goods to or from the archipelago from or to American ports, was repealed. These are meritorious acts. A few other of a minor character are to be added to the positive side of the record.

On the other hand, Congress refrained from "taking chances" with legislation that was vigorously opposed. Some have therefore praised it for its negative record, for the things it left undone. All depends on the point of view. Organized labor is disappointed, for it has secured none of the new legislation it sought. The National Manufacturers' Association is congratulating itself on the defeat of all anti-injunction and eight-hour bills, and on the indefinite postponement of the effort to exempt labor unions from certain prohibitions of the trust act.

But all agree that the session was singularly barren. The effect of this on the political campaign is a subject for animated talk in all circles. Will it help the party in power, or hurt it? Will the Democrats profit by it, or will they suffer for the attitude of their representatives in the House? It is not impossible that the greater issues of the campaign will overshadow the entire question of Congressional sins of commission or omission.

National Expenditures, Economy, and Taxes

The steady growth of national expenditures, of congressional appropriations, has been a subject of earnest discussion of late. Economy is not a popular issue with practical politicians, and even real leaders of parties give it very little attention. If the people, the taxpayers, were more deeply interested in it, if they watched Congress and effectively demanded honest economy in expenditures, the situation would of course be entirely different. Perhaps the new movement for the conservation of natural resources and riches will suggest the need of a correlative agitation for reasonable economy in current expenditures.

This year the question is particularly urgent, because the Treasury has a heavy deficit to meet and because, if the business of the country does not improve beyond present expectations, the deficit for the next fiscal year may reach a total of $150,000,000. That would wipe out the whole Treasury balance and bring Congress face to face with the unpleasant problem of new taxes in a time of peace. Already influential newspapers are discussing the possible sources of additional revenue, and nothing is suggested that would be popular.

A substantial reduction of the tariff rates would result in heavier imports and larger revenues, but there will be powerful opposition to such reductions. The tariff is to be revised in any case, no matter which party wins next November, but Republican revision will follow protectionist lines rather than the revenue principle advocated by the Democrats.

Aside from a revenue tariff, which is unlikely, the alternative to fresh taxes is strict economy in every direction. Is such economy possible? The appropriations of the last session of Congress reached a total of $1,028,000,000, or $88,000,000 more than the total for the current year. Not long ago "a billion dollar Congress" was viewed with alarm in many quarters; today we have billion dollar sessions.

What can be done to check the growth of expenditures? The cry for increased appropriations on account of the army, the navy and fortifications is loud and persistent, and in that direction economy is scarcely to be expected. The increase this year under this head is over $43,000,000, though we are at peace with all nations and no cloud is visible on the horizon. The demands for internal improvements—for river and harbor appropriations, public building, canals and waterways, forest reserves, etc.,—is also becoming louder every year, and in a sense it is a demand for progressive and necessary expenditures. There are, indeed, public men who may say that as the country is expanding, assuming additional obligations, discharging "world functions," it is inevitable that its annual expenditures should increase. But this is no refutation of the economy argument. That a certain increase is unavoidable is not to be assumed without proof. At any rate, the House accuses the Senate of extravagance, waste, and recklessness, the Senate makes the same charge against the House, while individual members of the legislative body say that the executive departments are really responsible for the rising tide of expenditures. There is doubtless considerable truth in each of these indictments, and economy must be the common care and aim of all parts of the government, as well as of the people. If the question continues to be neglected, taxes will multiply and increase, while really great improvements will of necessity be delayed or rendered impossible.

Radical Ideas in Oregon

The country has heard a great deal about the radicalism of Oklahoma, the youngest state, and while it has been misrepresented and unjustly ridiculed there is no doubt that Oklahoma is very advanced in its legislation and may fairly be described as our "sociological laboratory." Yet Oregon, a Republican state and of mature age, is almost

as radical in certain directions. Its initiative-and-referendum system, which the courts have sustained, is one of the most advanced in the world, and under it the people have great powers of control and direct legislation. This system is reënforced by a primary law which encourages independence and prevents machine and boss manipulation. The two appliances together are responsible for many surprising developments.

In June, in connection with state elections, the people of Oregon voted on nineteen different referendum proposals, four of those being amendments to the state constitution. They also voted in an advisory capacity on the federal senatorship. The results are, politically, far-reaching indeed.

The next legislature will be Republican, as usual, but a majority of its members are pledged to elect a Democrat, Gov. Chamberlain, to the federal Senate. One of the measures which a majority approved requires legislators to ratify the choice of the majority of the voters with regard to the senatorship, and a majority of the members of the next legislature are pledged to abide by this mandate. The spectacle of a Republican legislature sending a Democrat to the Senate would be a unique one in our politics. It is said that some of the Oregon legislators will violate their pledges and vote for a Republican candidate, but if they do that a stormy protest will be made. Whatever happens, the Oregon situation furnishes a powerful argument to the advocates of direct popular election of federal senators.

A woman suffrage amendment and an amendment for the exemption of buildings, improvements on land, live stock and other forms of property from taxation (known as the Single-Tax amendment, though it did not go as far as the Henry George theory of taxation does) were defeated by decisive majorities at the same election, but several other radical proposals were adopted. Among them may be named:

An amendment for the recall of faithless or incompetent officers and legislators after a certain specified period of service. Twenty-five per cent. of the voters of the community concerned may, by petition, compel any officer to stand for reëlection and thus submit himself to the judgment of his constituents.

An amendment for proportional representation providing that the minority shall be given representation in any office for which two or more persons are to be elected.

A strong anti-corrupt practices measure, which limits campaign expenditures and campaign contributions, prohibits "treating" or promises of offices by candidates, and requires all political advertising to be marked as such.

The other measures are of local interest, but it is agreed that the voters showed discrimination and independence in registering their judgments. However, there are many persons in and out of Oregon who, while friendly to the referendum, hold that it is valuable only when sparingly used, when only a few propositions are submitted at a time, and when minor and administrative questions are left to the elected or appointed officials. An abuse of the referendum, they say, may cause indifference and neglect, if not a positive reaction against the institution.

Prohibition and Liquor-Trade Reform

From time to time attention has been directed in these pages to the remarkable advance of the prohibition movement in the South. The latest state to join the procession is North Carolina, which recently adopted state prohibition by a sweeping popular majority. Most of the state is already anti-license under local option, but in January next all the saloons and the dispensaries will go out of existence. The same state had voted against prohibition in 1881, so that this year's verdict marks an emphatic reversal of opinion. The vote is admitted by all, including the liquor trade, to possess high significance.

It is true that some writers in the North regard the southern prohibition movement as essentially and consciously an anti-negro movement, and deny for this reason that it has the same moral value and the same practical importance as the parallel movement in the North. Some doubting Thomases say that the white population of the South is not really affected by the prohibition laws, as they import liquors in "original packages" and organize clubs that take the place of saloons. This phase of the question has not been properly investigated, however, and the general belief is that the negro saloon has been only one of the causes of the prohibition wave in the South. That the whites of that section have entered into a conspiracy to deprive the blacks of drink, while taking care to protect their own "privileges," seems an absurd notion on its face.

But be this as it may, the movement is significant enough to have aroused the better elements in the trade, especially among the brewers. The need of reform in the retail trade is admitted more and more frankly. At the recent convention, at Milwaukee, of the National Brewers' Association resolutions were adopted repudiating all support of or sympathy with the low, evil-breeding saloons, the dives and vicious resorts, the law-breaking dealers who sell to minors and persons already intoxicated, who violate proper and necessary ordinances regulating the traffic, and who encourage gambling and immorality. All speakers declared that they stood ready to coöperate heartily with the authorities and the temperance reformers in the effort to eliminate all such abuses and to make the saloon a respectable and decent institution for moderate and reasonable consumers of spirits.

As many saloons are owned by brewers or financed by them such a policy on their part, if energetically and consistently followed, could not fail in the course of a time to produce important and desirable changes in saloon management and practice. It remains to be seen to what extent the resolutions and protestations of the brewers will be car-

ried out in the trade. Meanwhile the recognition that public sentiment demands such changes is a tribute to the movement for temperance and prohibition, an acknowledgement of its marked success and of the certainty of its further advance if the liquor interests remain in politics, oppose local option and evade laws and ordinances enacted in the interest of order, peace, sobriety and public morals.

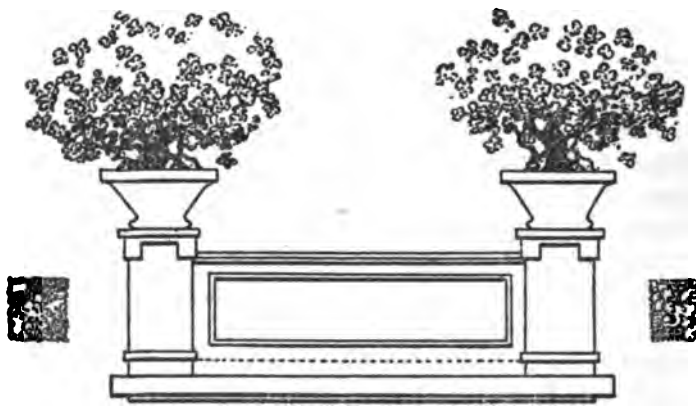
Pay, Temptation and the Wages of Sin

In addition to the movement in several countries for minimum wage laws for certain industries, especially the "sweated" or parasitic ones, there is what may be called the beginning of a movement for adequate salaries in vocations and employment with which legislatures will scarcely interfere in our time. In banking circles, for example, and in thoughtful newspapers the recent suicide of a paying teller of a New York bank—a suicide which followed the stealing of the bank's money and fear of exposure—has stimulated the discussion of the need of qualifying the so-called economic law of supply and demand by considerations of a broader and deeper nature.

The unfortunate paying teller had to support a family on $29 a week. He had served the bank faithfully for twenty years, but at last his struggles and temptations proved too great for his weak character. He yielded, he fell, and he "paid in full." There is no disposition anywhere to condone his theft, to overlook the fatal moral flaw in his personality that caused him to stray from the path of rectitude; but there is a disposition to ask whether directors and officers of banks, trust companies and other such institutions have given sufficient attention to the question of fixing salaries, not exclusively with reference to "the market," the number of men willing to assume delicate and important responsibilities for the lowest amount that they can live on in their station, but with some reference to the equities of the situation, the character of the office, as well as the

chances of embezzlements, defalcations and suicides, the expediency of protecting employes from severe temptations.

There are many banks that cannot pay more than the current "market" salaries to their clerks. There are banks which earn high dividends and could pay more if they thought it wise and right to do so. It is this latter class that is organizing excellent pension systems and seeking to make employes comfortable and contented in various ways. It is this class that will surely be led to study the question of salaries in connection with thefts, absconcions, suicides, these, in the words of a leading newspaper, being far too frequent with us and proving the need of some reform. In other words, the salary in higher and responsible positions is beginning to be studied from a new point of view—a moral and social one.



A Reading Journey Through Switzerland

I. The Land and the People

By Oscar Kuhns

Professor of Modern Languages in Wesleyan University.

EACH of the countries of Europe usually visited by the American tourist has a peculiar charm of its own. We are drawn to England by its historical and literary associations; to France by its Gothic cathedrals, picturesque castles, and all the art treasures of its greatest city; to Italy by the strange contrast afforded by its world-ruins in the midst of a nature forever young; and to Germany by its quaint mediaeval cities, and that "voice of the old Rhine, telling the eternal legend of dead generations, the crimes, exploits, grandeur, and decadence of the old robber-knights whose castle crown the heights on both sides of the historic stream."

It is hard for us to say which of these we love the most. Yet there is one country, which we have not as yet mentioned and which has won the personal affection of a vast multitude of travelers to a greater extent, perhaps, than any other. Every year Switzerland, which has rightly been called by Leslie Stephen "the Playground of Europe," is becoming more and more popular. The tide of travel long ago filled up the lower zones, and now threatens to reach to the very summit of the Jungfrau, Monte Rosa, or even Mont Blanc itself, the highest of all the mountains of Europe. Everywhere you can see the mountain railroad with its curiously shaped locomotive, crawling like a fly over the grassy slopes, or up the perpendicular sides of the precipices, with its shrill whistle echoing along the narrow valleys or sounding faint and far from the distant mountain top.

Of all the reasons for this unique popularity of Switzer-

land there are three which especially deserve mention: its history, its legends, and its scenery.

The history of Switzerland is exceedingly interesting, though complicated. In the gradual development of a free republic, it resembles to a certain extent our own land, and exemplifies better, perhaps, even than England herself, how Freedom has slowly broadened down,

"From precedent to precedent."

The earliest inhabitants of the country belonged to prehistoric times, and the only traces left of them today are the few remnants of bones and utensils, found chiefly in the shallow part of the various lakes; for they were what is known as Lake-dwellers. At that time the country was one unbroken wilderness of trackless forests, inhabited by wild beasts,—bears, buffalos, wolves, wild boar, and even the gigantic mammoth. To protect themselves from these and other enemies, the men of the stone age built their villages on piles, stretching out over the water of Lakes Geneva, Neuchâtel, Zürich, and others.

When the light of history dawns for the first time over Switzerland we see these early, Lapland-like inhabitants gone; and in their place, the whole country occupied by Celtic tribes, grouped together under the common name of Helvetii. They are a warlike race, living by means of fishing, agriculture, and cattle-raising, or plundering the territory of their neighbors. In common with the related races in France and Great Britain they had their Druid-Priests, their Bards and their Judges, and worshipped the sacred oak, a worship not unstained by human sacrifice. Those who have toiled through the commentaries of Cæsar may yet remember the story of Orgetorix and Diviko, of the tremendous army of Helvetians that sought new homes in the sunnier lands to the south, and how Julius Cæsar met them, drove them back, and after slaying nearly four hundred thousand men, women, and children, reduced the land of The Helvetii, the Switzerland of today, to the condition

of a Roman province. For four hundred years the process of Roman civilization went on, the whole face of the country was changed, new cities established, amphitheaters, temples, and palaces were built, remnants of which can be still seen. Magnificent roads led over the mountain passes from Italy, others led to France and to the Rhine in the north. Everywhere Roman customs, Roman art, and Roman laws were introduced, and most important of all, the old pagan religion of the Celts now gave way to Christianity.

The next great change in the history of Switzerland occurs at the beginning of the fifth century and lasts for one hundred years. It is the period of the great *völkerwanderung,* during which the Franks conquered Gaul, the Visigoths Spain, the Lombards and others northern Italy, and thus laid the foundation of the modern ethnography and geography of Europe. One of these German tribes was known as Alemanni, and having been prevented by the Franks, under Clovis, from advancing towards the west, they settled in what is now known as Swabia or Würtemberg, and then overflowing the Rhine, spread through all the northern and eastern part of Switzerland, conquering the Romans, and forming the basis of what is now known as German Switzerland.

A similar tribe of Germans, the Burgundians, had long been settled in France on the western slopes of the Alps, and conquering later the eastern slopes as well, they formed what is now known as Romance or French Switzerland. In similar manner the southern slopes of the Alps were settled by the German Lombards, from whom are descended the inhabitants of Italian Switzerland.

It would take us far out of our way to discuss even in the most general terms the subsequent history of Switzerland, to trace her various rulers, and her fortunes in peace and war. But running like an ever increasing stream all through her history is the development of a free, republican form of government.

All Switzerland, like the rest of western Europe, was

included in the realm of Charlemagne, but when he died and his unworthy descendants were unable to hold together the great empire he left, it too was divided and torn by conflicting claimants. The feudal system prevailed here likewise, with its lords and vassals and serfs. The western part of the country belonged to Burgundy, the middle and northern part was under the rule of the Duke of the Alemanni, while the highest authority still was considered as belonging to the Emperor himself. The whole land was divided up in districts or counties, the rulers of which were known as *Gaugrafen* or *Landgrafen*. Among these counts or earls was a certain Radbot, who, in order to keep his subjects better in check, built in the year 1020, on the Wülpelsberge not far from Brugg, a new castle called the Hapsburg. From this little castle dates the world-famous family of the Hapsburgs, which once ruled all Europe, and still occupies the imperial throne of Austria. The story of the rise of this family is a picturesque one, how little by little it added to its territories, how Rudolf, in 1273, became emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, a proud, ambitious, all compelling man, at whose coronation at Aix-la-Chapelle, the Bishop of Bâle is said to have cried out, "Now, almighty God, settle thyself firmly on thy throne on high, else this Rudolf cast thee therefrom."

In the meantime around the Lake of Lucerne, three quiet, obscure cantons had been formed, Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden, inhabited by a rude, simple, but proud and independent race of herdsmen and hunters. This was especially true of Uri, which had received many rights and privileges from the Emperor before the advent of Rudolf, and was under the mild rule of the Abbess of Fraumünster. Twice a year she sent a Reichsvogt into the valley, where under the open sky, in the presence of the assembled population of freemen, courts were held, taxes gathered, and other business done.

When the Hapsburgs came to the imperial power, this condition of things was changed, constant encroachments

and oppression threatened to reduce the primitive communities to a state of real servitude. And though they did nothing as long as Rudolf lived, yet at the news of his death in 1291, as if the matter had been planned long before, delegates from the three cantons, Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden, met together, and on August first, 1291, swore to what is known as the first Perpetual Pact. They promised to help one another against every foe, to recognize no stranger as their judge, to settle quarrels among themselves by means of arbitrators, and to contribute both men and money to the common cause.

From this small beginning has come the great Swiss Confederacy of today. One by one as the years went by, the other cantons joined the union, Lucerne in 1332, Zürich, in 1351, Glarus and Zug in 1352, Bern in 1353. After the glorious victories against the Burgundians, Freiburg and Solothurn joined them (1481). After the Swabian war, which finally freed Switzerland from the German Empire, Bâle and Schaffhausen (1501), and Appenzell (1513) joined the Confederation. Under Napoleon's mediation in 1803, the cantons of St. Gall, Grisons, Aargua, Thurgau, Ticino, and Vaud, were added. Only after the fall of the Helvetian Republic, a child of the French Revolution, did Geneva, Neufchâtel, and Valais round out the whole number.

But all this did not happen peacefully. The progress of Swiss freedom is marked by terrible struggles and glorious victories, which made the Swiss soldiers feared and admired by all the world. There was the battle of Morgarten, November 15, 1315, in which the soldiers of the infant republic received the baptism of blood, and in which the proud nobles of Austria who formed the flower of the hostile forces were slain almost to a man. There was the battle of Laupen, June 21, 1339, which was for Bern the beginning of her prosperity and power. There was the battle of Sempach, July 9, 1386, where Arnold von Winkelried of Unterwalden at a critical moment is said to have won the day for his companions at the sacrifice of his own life;

and finally there were the glorious victories against Charles the Bold of Burgundy,—the battle of Grandson, March 2, 1476, when a rich booty fell into the hands of the Swiss, horses, flags, tents, precious stones, garments, and stuffs of silver and gold; the battle of Murten, the 22nd of June of the same year; and the battle of Nancy, January 5, 1477, where Charles himself was slain, having as the old rhyme puts it, lost

Bei Grandson das Gut,
Bei Murten den Mut,
Bei Nancy das Blut.

(At Grandson his wealth, at Murten his courage, at Nancy his life.)

Inextricably mingled with this history are the legends which form so peculiar a feature of the annals of Switzerland. Even today the peasants of the Canton Schwyz and the Hasli Valley will tell you that they are the descendants of a band of Swedes who many centuries ago, driven by famine, left their native land in the far north, and made their way over the whole length of Germany, until they finally reached the secluded valleys where their descendants are still supposed to live.

Among the names dearest to the heart of the Swiss are those of Arnold Winkelried and William Tell. Up to comparatively recent times grave historians would relate how at the battle of Sempach, when the long lances of the Austrian soldiers prevented the Swiss from making any impression on their serried ranks, Arnold Winkelried from Unterwalden, leaped with open arms towards the enemy, gathered a score or so of their long spears in his embrace and cried as he fell, pierced to the heart, "I will make a way for you, my dear countrymen; care ye for my wife and children." Through the opening thus made his companions rushed and won the victory. Today a monument to Winkelried stands on the field of battle. But alas! modern scholarship has had to perform the unwelcome task of proving that this beautiful story is nothing but a myth.

Everybody knows the story of William Tell: how the Austrian bailiff Gessler oppressed the free peasants of Schwyz and Uri; how in very wantonness of tyranny, he set his hat upon a pole in Altdorf and commanded every Switzer to salute it as he passed by; how Tell refused to submit to this indignity, and how he was forced to shoot the apple from the head of his own son, as the only condition of saving his life. We remember the scenes that follow, the storm on Lake Lucerne; Tell, a prisoner in the boat with Gessler, his offer to guide the boat safely to shore; his wild leap and escape, and that final scene in the Hohle Gasse, near Küssnacht, where he shot the tyrant and thus laid the foundation of Swiss freedom.

Surely no more inspiring and beautiful story can be found in the annals of any nation. A cry of indignation rose from the whole Swiss people when, a few years ago, Eutychius Kopp proved conclusively that William Tell never existed; that his story was only a local version of a legend common to all Aryan peoples.

Yet the Swiss will never cease to revere the name of William Tell. Today his spirit hovers over every foot of the fair region about Lake Lucerne; and it was no mere sentiment but an act of the truest political wisdom, when the Swiss government a short time ago, on the occasion of Schiller's centenary, gave to each one of the school children of the land, nearly two hundred thousand in all, a copy of Schiller's "William Tell." For thus the memory of their great national hero is kept alive, and for centuries to come his name will still be potent to infuse into the heart of the youth of Switzerland, new zeal and determination to do and die for the Fatherland.

While far less romantic than the older history of Switzerland, that of recent times is no less interesting to Americans; for it is the only country in Europe that bears close resemblance in its political and social life to our own country. It has had its war of Rebellion just as the United States, for the Federation which was formed after the fall

of Napoleon, was so unsatisfactory that a new Federation was formed in 1847, consisting of seven states, which attempted to secede from the old government, and these were put down only by force of arms. The new and more perfect form of Confederation adopted in 1848, limited the independent power of the separate states, gave the same rights to all Swiss in the courts, turned over to the central government the control of military service, taxation, post-office, coinage, measures, etc. Having imitated the constitution of our own land, it is natural that we should find many resemblances between the two, both having a House of Representatives, a Senate, a President and his Cabinet, a Supreme Court, etc. But at the same time the Swiss took care to adopt all these features in a form which suited their particular needs; hence there are a number of minor differences between the two governments. But the great difference is that of the Referendum and the Initiative, something which has had no counterpart in our own country, until very recently, and has proved to be very successful in applying in modern times the ancient Teutonic principle of direct government.

It is not surprising, in view of their long training, that the Swiss people of today offer the spectacle of a prosperous, united, highly cultivated state. The people themselves are not only freer and better educated than many of their neighbors, but are on the whole of the highest religious and moral character. Many Americans have felt that here is a people more like their own people than any other on the continent of Europe.

But after all it is not the history or the legends of Switzerland that have made it so popular, but rather the extraordinary beauty and charm of its scenery. Mr. Leslie Stephen has entitled his interesting collection of essays on mountain climbing, "The Playground of Europe." And the name is well chosen. Many distinguished men of all lands and occupations come here to rest from their arduous labors, and to regain new health and strength. Every sum-

mer scholars, scientists, clergymen, and men of letters climb the lofty mountains, and go back renewed in body and spirit to resume their work in the home land.

But even for those who are not mountain climbers, Switzerland exerts a powerful attraction. Many come hither in search of health, such as the late John Addington Symonds, who has written what is perhaps the best article on the love of the Alps: "Of all the joys in life," he says, "none is greater than the joy of arriving on the outskirts of Switzerland at the end of a long, dusty day's journey from Paris. It is about Mülhausen that we begin to feel a change in the landscape. The fields broaden into rolling downs, watered by clear and running streams; pines begin to tuft the slopes of gently rolling hills; and now the sun has set, the stars come out, and we feel, yes there is no mistake, the well-known, well-loved, magical fresh air that never fails to blow from snowy mountains and meadows watered by perennial streams."

Others come for comfort in affliction, to find the peace and quiet that always seem to dwell among the high mountains. Thus Matthew Arnold, when sorrowing over a disappointed love, flies hitherward, and as the train approaches the Alpine world, cries out:

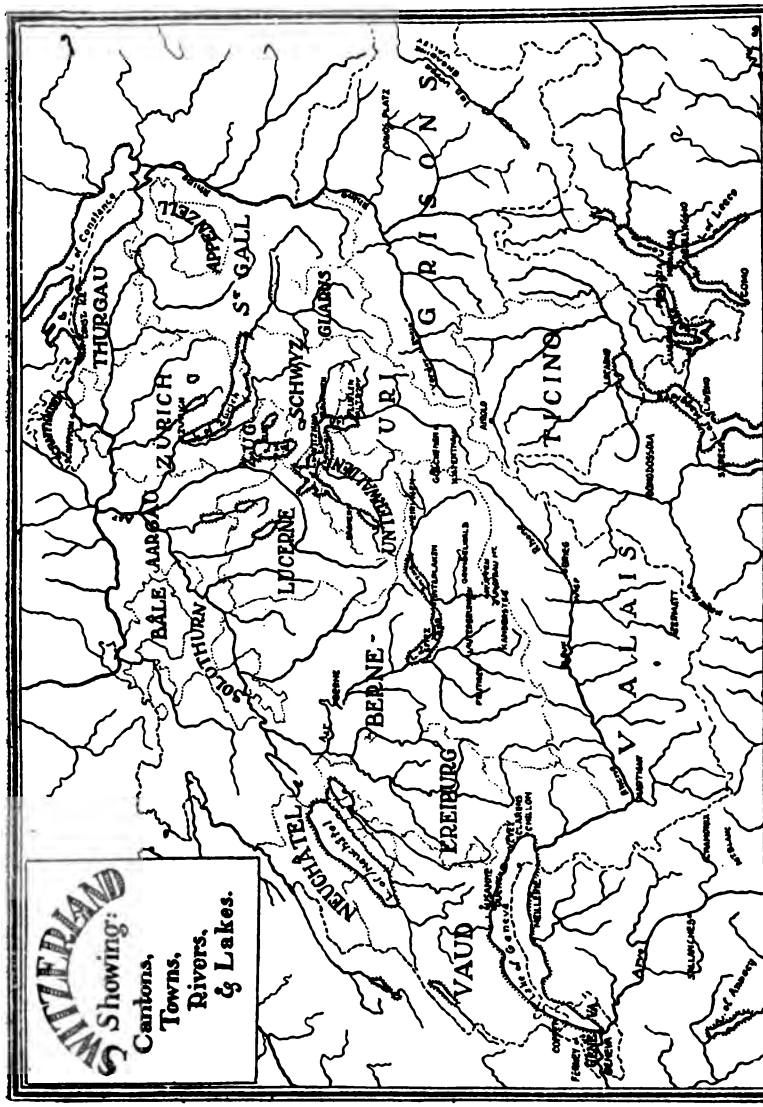
"Hark! fast by the windows,
The rushing winds go,
To the ice-cumbered gorges,
The vast seas of snow!
There the torrents drive upward
Their rock-strangled hum;
There the avalanche thunders
The hoarse torrent dumb.
I come, O ye mountains,
Ye torrents, I come!"

Still others find here esthetic pleasure, inspiration to art or song. Every lover of poetry will remember Coleridge's "Hymn before sunrise in the Vale of Chamonix," Byron's descriptions of the Alps in his "Manfred," and Ruskin's famous chapters on the mountain gloom and the mountain glory. Ruskin himself was born with the mountain fever

in his blood. To this he attributed a great influence over his whole life. In a well-known passage of his "Praeterita," he tells how he saw the Alps for the first time; and adds, "I went down that evening from the garden terrace of Schaffhausen with my destiny fixed in all of it that was to be sacred and useful. To that terrace and the shore of the Lake of Geneva, my heart and faith return to this day, in every impulse that is yet nobly alive in them and every thought that has in it help or peace."

Such is the land which we are now to visit for a brief time. But before we begin our journey it will be well to cast a bird's-eye view over its physical conformation. If, on our way from Italy to Switzerland, instead of taking a train at Airolo and speeding through the nine and a half mile tunnel to Göschenen, we should climb to the summit of the St. Gotthard Pass, we should be in a position to understand the general topography of Switzerland. The great central mass of the St. Gotthard group on which we stand forms the focus, as it were, of the mountain world. From here run out the chief ranges, to the left that of the Bernese Oberland, containing among other peaks the Jungfrau, the Eiger, the Finsteraarhorn, and on the other side of the Rhone valley, Monte Rosa, the Matterhorn and Mt. Blanc. To our right, on both sides of the newly formed stream of the Rhine, are the Alps of the Cantons of Grisons and Glarus, while still farther to the east are the enormous masses of the Tyrolese mountains. In front and behind us the mountain walls slope gradually down, until the last foot-hills fall away into the plains of Northern Switzerland and of Italy. This immense group of mountain ranges has a general direction from east to west. Far away to the north runs, almost parallel, the lower but more precipitous chain of the Juras, forming the boundary line between Switzerland and France. Two rivers of world-wide fame have their origin in the St. Gotthard mountains, the Rhone and the Rhine. There is a strange resemblance in the sources, the growth, and the final destiny of these two

rivers. They rise a few miles distant from each other; both draw their source from the St. Gotthard, which is the great watershed of the Alps, and which sends down its streams, on the left to the Rhone, on the right to the Rhine. Both rivers run for many miles along the edge of Switzerland, lose themselves for a while in a lake, only to leave it on foreign territory. The Rhone, which has burst forth from the icy caves of the Rhone glacier, flows along the winding valley of the same name, enters Lake Geneva, and issuing therefrom, hastens over the fair fields of France to find a final resting place in the Mediterranean. In similar manner the Rhine flows along its narrow valley, enters Lake Constance, and skirting the northern boundaries of Switzerland leaves that country finally at Bâle, and traverses the whole length of Germany, of which it forms at the same time the most important waterway and defense. Between these mountains and rivers lies the rest of Switzerland sloping away to the great plain of the Aar in the north. Here and there are seen those wonderfully blue lakes which form so lovely a feature of Swiss scenery,—Lucerne, Geneva, Zürich, and a score of others. Everywhere are scattered flourishing cities, neat and attractive villages, picturesque castles, or the humble chalet of the Alpine shepherd; everywhere is heard the tinkling of cow-bells, the murmur of running streams, or the shrill whistle of the mountain railroads.


SWITZERLAND
Showing:
Cantons,
Towns,
Rivers,
& Lakes.
THURGAU
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APPENZ
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BERNE
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VAUD
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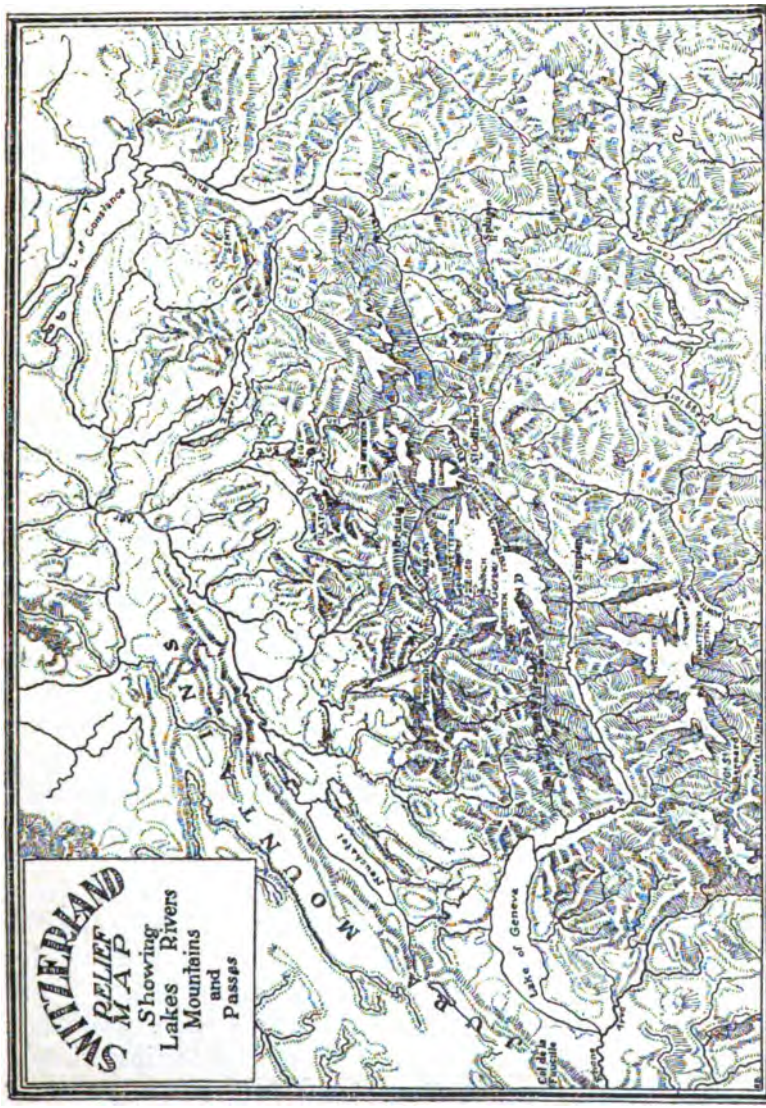
TICINO
GRISONS


SWITZERLAND
RELIEF MAP
Showing
Lakes Rivers
Mountains
and
Passes
Lake of Geneva
Lac de la Gruyère
Lac de Constance
Rhone
Rhine
Aar
Ticino
Inn
Saane
Reuss
Thun
Brienz
Zurich
Lucerne
Geneva
Basel
Berne
Fribourg
Neuchatel
Sion
Martigny
Chillon
Simplon
Stockhorn
Titlis
Pilatus
Rigi
Jura
Alps
Mountains

II. The Outskirts of the Mountain World.

YOU can enter Switzerland from Italy by way of the Italian Lakes and the Simplon or the St. Gotthard tunnel, from France by way of Geneva, and from Germany by way of the Rhine. As this latter is perhaps the most popular route for Americans making a summer trip abroad, as we are doing now, we will choose it for our little journey through the Alps. The first place we stop at is Bâle or Basel, as it is variously written in English, the capital of the half canton of Bâle-Ville, situated on both banks of the Rhine. It is a busy railroad center, and at the time of the arrival and departure of trains the station is a scene of the utmost animation and confusion, crowded with tourists of every land and nation.

Most travelers, however, do not even enter the precincts of the city but change trains and pass on to their destination beyond. But after all, Bâle is well worthy of a visit even on the part of those who are eager to get among the Alps. The Rhine flows clear and green; from the bridge, and especially from the Pfalz, a terrace behind the münster, we get fine views over the river and the hills of the Black Forest. The old münster, with its walls of red sandstone, colored roof and slender towers is picturesque and attractive, while to the student of history it is especially interesting as the seat of the famous Council of Bâle, which lasted from 1431 to 1449.

The names of two great painters are intimately connected with Bâle, that of Hans Holbein the Younger (1497-1543), and that of Arnold Böcklin (1827-1901), many of whose pictures can be seen in the local picture gallery.

But all these things can be seen in a short time, and so we find ourselves once more on the comfortable Swiss train, reminding us of those of our own country, on our

way to Constance which is situated in the northeastern corner of Switzerland just as Bâle is situated at the northwest. This journey is ninety miles long and can be made by express in about three hours. The road passes near the Rhine, for nearly the whole distance, and is rendered agreeable by a succession of fine views. Twenty miles out from Bâle is the little town of Säckingen, rendered famous over all Europe by the poem and opera of Victor von Scheffel, "Der Trumpeter von Säckingen," the farewell song of which, at least, is known to Americans. The one city of any size or importance is Schaffhausen (16,000 inhabitants), chiefly interesting perhaps for the old bell in the münster, the inscription on which,

VIVOS VOCO, MORTUOS PLANGO, FULGURES FRANGO.

(I call the living, I lament the dead, I ward off the thunderbolt), suggested to Schiller his "Lied von der Glocke."

From Schaffhausen, or better still from the station of Neuhausen, a mile and a half away, we can visit one of the great show places of Switzerland, the Falls of the Rhine, the Niagara of Europe. While not to be compared in grandeur to the famous American falls, the view is nevertheless inspiring, and sublime; the great river, one hundred and twenty-five feet wide, descends in three leaps a rocky ledge sixty feet high on one side and forty-eight on the other, and with its cascades and rapids, huge masses of emerald green water plunging down into the foaming abyss, the thunderous roaring, the clouds of spray, the rainbows it produces a feeling of awe and admiration.

And now we have reached Constance, the old free Imperial city, beautifully situated on the lake of the same name, where the Rhine flows from it, something in the same way the Rhone leaves the lake at Geneva. In the few hours at our disposal here, we turn our steps first of all to the places rendered famous by the tragic story of John Huss and Jerome of Prague,—the house in Husenstrasse where the former was arrested, the place behind it where Jerome of Prague was imprisoned, and a half mile to the

west of the town, the large boulder in the Brühl, which as the inscription tells us, marks the spot where the two reformers were martyred.

But the most important place is the old cathedral, with the large stone slab, with a white spot on it, where Huss is said to have stood on July 6, 1415, when the Council sentenced him to be burned at the stake, and as we stand on this spot, our hearts are deeply moved, and our imagination conjures up that famous scene. The church was crowded by all that was most brilliant in Christendom, princes and nobles, cardinals and bishops; the Emperor himself was present, to lend solemnity to the occasion. A platform in the shape of a table had been erected in the middle of the church upon which were the priestly garments in which Huss was to be clothed, before the ceremony of his degradation began. He himself was placed on a high stool before the table in order that the people might see him. While the sentence of condemnation was being read, Huss listened to it on his knees, and from time to time tried to protest against the accusations made against him, but was prevented by those near him. When the reading of the sentence was ended he called God to witness that he was innocent, and prayed Him to forgive his judges and accusers. Hereupon followed the ceremony of degradation. He was ordered to put on the priestly robes. This he did, uttering words recording the similar ceremony in the case of Christ. When he was fully dressed they asked him once more to recant; but he, facing the people, denied having any desire to offend or lead astray the faithful by hypocritical and wicked recantation, protesting at the same time his innocence. Then he was forced to descend from his seat, and the bishops, taking the chalice from his hands, said, "O cursed Judas, who having forsaken the counsel of peace art entered into that of the Jews, we take this chalice from thee in which is the blood of Jesus Christ." With similar curses they took from him each of his vestments, and then putting a paper crown or miter on his head, painted

with grotesque figures of devils and the word "Heresiarcha," arch-heretic, they devoted his soul to the devils in hell. As we stand here we cannot help a feeling of uplift and inspiration at the heroic death of this man, a death which is the heritage of all mankind, because he was a witness of the truth as he conceived it, and not all the combined efforts of the Catholic Church and the Holy Roman Empire could make him falter for a single moment.

It is only a short distance from Constance to Zürich, thirty miles if we go by way of Eglisau, thirty-five if we go by way of Winterthur. Taking the former route we pass once more Schaffhausen and Neuhausen, go through a tunnel below the latter village, get a last view of the Rhine Falls then strike southward to Eglisau, whence we soon reach Zürich after less than a two hours' ride from Constance.

Zürich is a large,handsome, clean, eminently modern city in appearance, situated at the outlet of the river Limmat from the lake. It is the largest and in many respects the most important city of Switzerland, with a population of nearly 200,000 inhabitants. It is important from a business and commercial standpoint, with many silk and cotton mills, machine shops and iron foundries. It is also important from an educational point of view: its schools are excellent, and it possesses two higher institutions of learning equal to anything of the kind in Germany or elsewhere, the University and the Polytechnicum; the former counting nearly fifteen hundred students and one hundred and thirty professors; the latter, having nearly one thousand students and one hundred professors.

For many years Zürich has been a literary center, not only of Switzerland but for all Teutonic Europe. It was here that John Jacob Bodmer lived and died; he was born in 1698 in Greifensee not far from Zürich and became the pioneer of the revolt against the tyranny of French classicism. His defense of Milton's "Paradise Lost," which he afterward translated, gave the first impulse to the famous

literary quarrel between himself and Gottsched of Leipzig, who saw himself finally conquered and deserted by his most distinguished followers. All the younger German poets, Gleim, Hagedorn, Gellert, Klopstock, Kleist, were the devoted admirers and followers of Bodmer, who for many years held court at Zürich, whither came many distinguished foreigners to do him homage. This influential position of Zürich in German letters was kept up by Lavater, through whom Goethe first came to Switzerland. In 1752, Ewald von Kleist wrote to Gleim, "Zürich is really an incomparable place. For three or four people of genius and taste that one meets in great Berlin, there are in little Zürich more than twenty or thirty."

Other famous men who have lived and worked here are Pestalozzi, the founder of the kindergarten, Gottfried Keller, the poet, and Richard Wagner, who lived here twelve years, completing the "Lohengrin," and partly writing out the "Niebelungenleid." "In the complete freedom of my Swiss exile," he writes, "I found assured to myself an undisturbed self-concentration and a clear sight of my ideal."

But the one immortal name connected with Zürich, as well as with all Switzerland and the entire Reformed Church, is that of Zwingli. For twelve years he was in charge of the Grosmünster Church, where he preached and taught the people the new doctrines of the Reformation. The severely plain interior, the simple service, the devout earnest attitude of the congregation, and the gospel sermon of the preacher in the pulpit, make Zwingli's church an attractive place still on a Sunday morning.

There are several interesting places to visit in Zürich, besides the church; one is the town library, where one can see Zwingli's own German Bible, a letter of his to his wife, and three Latin letters from Lady Janè Grey to Bullinger, Zwingli's successor. Another place of interest is the magnificent new National Swiss Museum. One can spend many a pleasant hour walking through these handsome rooms, looking at the prehistoric remains from caves and lake dwell-

ings; Roman antiquities found in Switzerland, and Alemannian, Burgundian, and Lombard remains. In the more modern section we find the fine old porcelain stoves, richly carved furniture, and complete rooms in their original state, such as the one from the Winkelried house at Stans with a handsome coffered ceiling. There is nothing that gives one so deep an insight into the life of past centuries as a walk through this splendid museum.

But after all what constitutes the chief element of interest in such countries as Italy, Germany, etc., *i. e.,* picture galleries, churches, historic and literary localities seem to us of minor interest here in Switzerland, where the great book of nature is ever spread out before us. And so we leave these objects of man's activity and wander along the shores of the river and the lake. We take the little railroad which carries us to the top of the Uetliberg, overhanging the city, from whence we get a beautiful view, embracing the whole of Lake Zürich, the Alps from the Sentis to the Jungfrau and the Stockhorn on Lake Thun, with the Rigi and Pilatus in the foreground, the Jura to the west, and the mountains of the Black Forest to the north.

We take the steamboat and sail over the clear waters of the lake, twenty-five miles in length, with its gently sloping banks, blooming with vineyards, orchards, meadows and fields of grain; everywhere are scattered attractive and prosperous looking villages, while on the distant horizon rise the snow-covered summits of the Alps.

One pleasant incident of my visit to the shore of Lake Zürich still lingers in my memory. I had been walking along the shore not far from the little town of Wädenswyl, when I saw two little girls raking hay in a field and stopped to take their picture with my kodak. After snapping them I started off again, but heard them running after me, and saying, "Herr der Vater möchte auch ein Bild haben." (Father would also like to have a picture.) I took his address, and later sent him a copy of the photograph, receiving in turn a grateful acknowledgment.

III. The Birth-Place of Swiss Liberty

WE are now approaching the heart of Swiss scenery. Hitherto, we have seen the foot-hills of the Alps, and the snow-capped peaks only on the horizon. We are now about to enter the holy of holies of the mountain world.

One of the great advantages of Swiss travel is the short distances that lie between the objects of interest. From Zürich to Lucerne is only thirty-six miles, and less than two hours are necessary to bring us thither. Like all our journeys by railroad in this land, so richly endowed in the way of natural scenery, the journey we are now taking is one succession of beautiful views. Leaving Lake Zürich behind us, plunging into tunnels and out again, passing through green valleys, and by forest-clad hills, we reach the little town of Zug, situated on the lake and capital of the Canton of the same name. Here we have a reminder of the awful forces hiding beneath the fair exterior of Swiss scenery, fraught with destruction to man and all his works. For in 1887 the lower part of the town, without a moment's warning, sank into the lake, swallowing up many houses and barns and destroying eleven lives.

Leaving the quiet charm of this beautifully situated town, skirting along the lake, catching a glimpse from time to time of the Rigi, and passing through the tunnel under the Gütsch and Schönheim hill we enter the station of Lucerne.

Of all Swiss resorts none is more popular or more attractive than this quaint old medieval town. Situated on the main road to the St. Gotthard Pass, it has always been an important center in the commerce between Northern Switzerland and Italy. But especially since the building of the St. Gotthard railroad, has its importance increased an hundred fold. Today, in the height of the summer season, it is crowded to overflowing with tourists of all nations, Germans, English and Americans, French and Italians.

Along the beautiful quays which skirt the lake is a row

Neuhausen: Rhine Falls and Schloss Worth.

Constance—From the Cathedral.

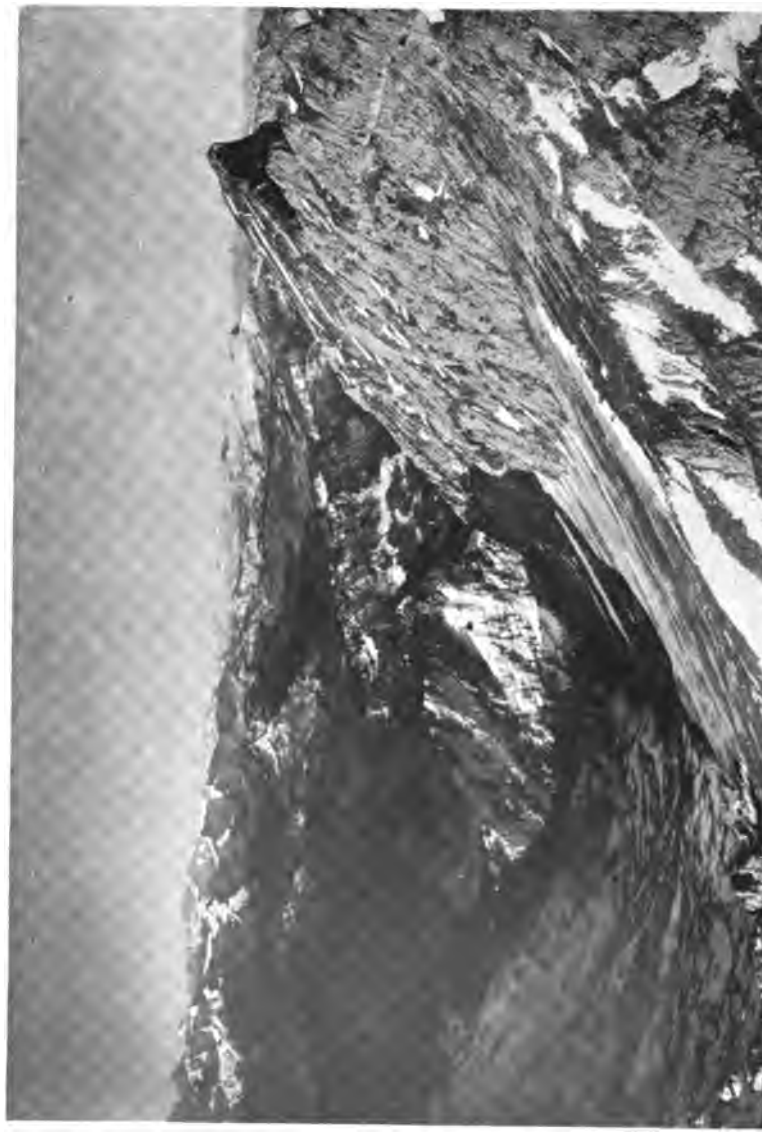
Zürich—General View.

The New Bridge—Basle.

of stately hotels; on the boulevard before them, planted with chestnut trees, a constant crowd is walking up and down. On the hills all about are pensions adapted to the purse of the less wealthy, while nearly every one of the charming little villages that line the shores of the lake throughout the whole length and breadth, have their hotels and pensions for the accommodation of the traveling public. In a certain sense, Lucerne is one of the great show places of Switzerland, and hence has lost much of its charm for those who love nature for herself alone. Thus the noble lion of Thorwaldsen (as it is often called, though it was not carved by him, but by Aborn of Constance, after a plaster cast furnished by the great Danish sculptor) has become the center of a lot of side-shows, not much unlike a circus in its atmosphere, though the attractions are not trained horses, wild beasts and clowns, but "glacier mills," "giant's cauldrons," collection of stuffed Alpine animals, reconstruction of lake dwellings, dioramas, panoramas, etc., all visited as a matter of duty by tourists, in the same spirit, perchance as people visit the curiosities of Luna Park or the Great White Way of the world expositions.

Lucerne—View of the City and Mont Pilate.

Lucerne with Rigi.



View from Mont Pilate—Lucerne.

Lake of the Four Cantons—Vitznau and the Rigi.

The Quay and Hotels—Lucerne.

The St. Gotthard Railway.

Tunnel of the Axenstrasse—Lake Lucerne.

The Lion of Thorwaldsen—Lucerne.

The Lion itself is worth seeing, both for itself and for the memories it calls up of the heroic courage of those Swiss guards of Louis XVI, who died defending the Tuileries, August 10, 1792.

But there are certain parts of Lucerne where the ordinary traveler seldom goes, and yet which are eminently worthy of a visit. The older part of the city with its narrow, quaint houses and its market-places, gives one still a good idea of the life of a medieval city. The river Reuss, flows with the rapidity of an arrow from the lake, and is spanned by seven bridges, two of which date from the middle ages, the Kapell-Brücke, and the Spreuer Brücke. Both of these bridges cross the Reuss obliquely, both are roofed in, and both are adorned with paintings, which if not of the highest artistic value, are yet interesting enough to look at. In the Kapell-Brücke, which was built in 1333, are painted scenes from Swiss history, and from the lives of the patron saints of Lucerne, St. Ledger and St. Maurice. The Water Tower near this bridge was once believed to be

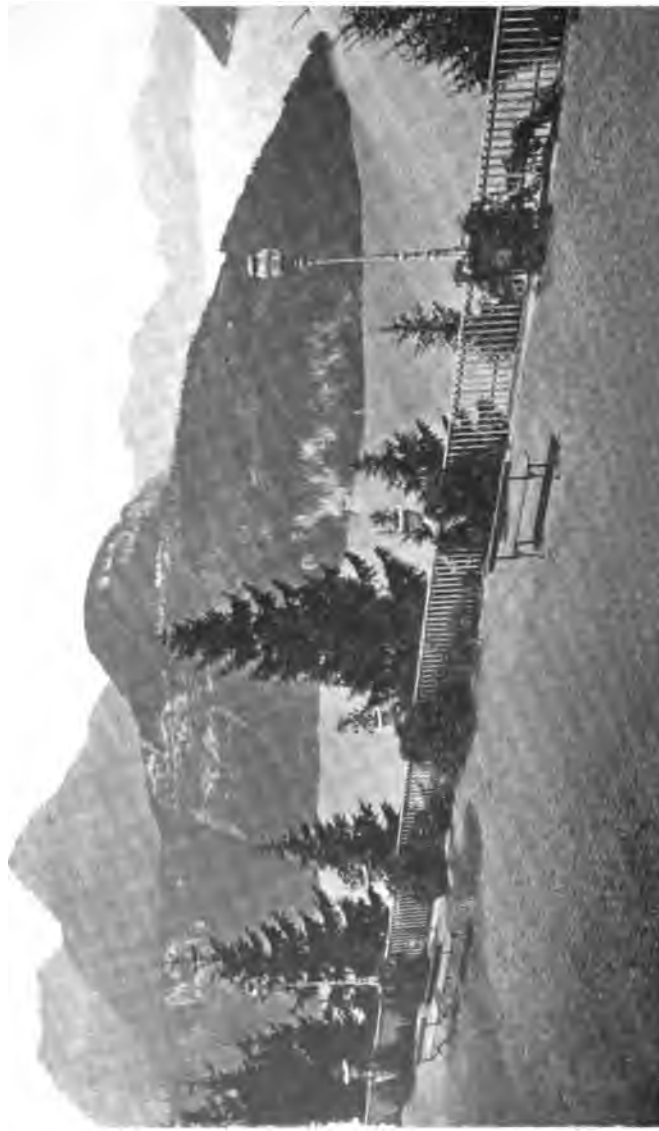
Railway and Car—Mont Rigi.

Street in Horgen—Lake Zürich.

a Roman light house (lucerna) whence the name of the city. This, however, is mere tradition, and no one really believes it today. In the Spreuer Brücke, built in 1408, the panels are decorated with the Dance of Death, a popular subject in the middle ages.

Another interesting relic of medieval times is the wall that surrounds the city, with its many watch-towers; and a very pleasant place of a summer evening, when one is tired of sight-seeing, is the Hofkirche or Church of St. Leodogar, which is said to date from the eighth century. Its two slender towers give it a graceful appearance. It is worth while attending the organ recitals, which are given every week day in summer, from six-thirty to seven-thirty p. m., the great attraction being the realistic imitation of the gradual oncoming of a thunder storm, the roaring of the winds, the crash of thunder, and the pattering of rain on the roof.

I have already said that Lucerne is one of the most popular centers of Swiss travel. All summer long the streets are crowded, omnibuses and carriages rushing to and from the trains, tourists promenading along the Schweizerhof Quay, sauntering through the streets, gazing into the shop-windows, bands of music playing, while all around the unequaled setting of the city, the blue waters of the lake, with the steamers going and coming, the rowboats moving here and there, the far-away whistle of the Pilatus railroad, all gives one the feeling of a holiday festival. Some years ago, however, I had an opportunity of seeing the striking difference between the life of the town in summer and that in winter. I was coming from the north on my way to Italy, and stopped over night at one of the large hotels,



The Selisberg, View Taken from the Axenstein—Lake of the Four Cantons.

Brünnen, View Taken from the Axenstrasse—Lake of the Four Cantons.

Chapel of William Tell—Lake of the Four Cantons.

where I could scarcely get a room, and nearly froze in the one they gave me. I took a walk through the streets. A bitter cold blast was blowing from the lake, everything had a deserted look, no strangers could be seen, the hotels were closed, the few natives who were abroad hurried along with hands in pocket, and coat-collars turned up.

But in summer time no pleasanter place in the world can be found than Lucerne and its environs. For after all the town itself is not the chief object of the traveler's interest; it is rather a starting place for innumerable trips on the lake itself, or to the various points of view.

Of these latter, the one nearest at hand is the Gütsch, a hill to the west of the city, reached by a cable tramway in a few minutes, and affording a very beautiful view of the lake, the Rigi, and the higher Alps. Then there is the mountain Pilatus, which rises, as it seems, almost perpendicularly across the lake, and in cloudy weather seems almost about to fall upon the town. The name Pilatus is probably derived from the medieval Latin word, *pileatus*, hooded; given to it from the cap or covering of cloud on its summit, from which it is seldom free, at least for a part of every day. Legend, however, and the spirit of myth-making, which is everywhere at work, has connected the mountain with the name of Pontius Pilate, whose spirit is said to haunt the mountain, or at least was said to do so before the modern railroad with its noise and bustle made it unpleasant for all ghosts, who as is well known love chiefly to frequent lonely places. Before the conquest of the high mountains by the modern tourist, almost every mountain was believed to be haunted by evil spirits. Thus we read in the beautiful song of Mignon in Goethe's "Wilhelm Meister," how

> In Höhlen wohnt des Drachen alte Brut,
> (In caverns dwells the ancient brood of dragons).

and Mr. Whymper found in his efforts to climb the Matterhorn no slight difficulty in overcoming the superstitious

Statue of William Tell—Altdorf.

fears of the guides. As I write this I have before me a quaint old German book of legends in which the story of Pilate is given: how full of despair and remorse after the death of the Savior, he committed suicide; how the Emperor ordered the body to be placed in a sack and sunk in the river Tiber; how the sack would not sink into the water nor remain underground, and how evil spirits would raise it in the air; how storm and tempest, thunder and lightning and floods arose wherever it was; how the body was brought from Rome to South France and flung into the river Rhone near the city of Vienne; how the boats that passed this place would sink and be destroyed; until the body was taken up again, and "the sack with the accursed body of Pilate was carried to a high mountain between the towns of Lucerne and Unterwalden, and there in a deep pond, loaded with heavy stones, was sunk; and every year on Good Friday his spirit rises and sits upon the Judgment

seat, as if he were delivering judgment; and the inhabitants of Lucerne set watchmen day and night near the same pool, to prevent anyone from casting stones, or pieces of wood into the pond, for if this is done great storms and water-spouts arise and death and destruction follow."

Today, however, Mt. Pilatus is one of the most popular of all the famous view points of Switzerland. It is reached by a rack and pinion railroad, which starts from Alpnachstad, a station on the Brünig railroad, not far from Lucerne. Passing among beautiful pastures and forests on its lower slopes, through tunnels, over deep gorges, we finally reach the broad plateau of the Esel, where a magnificent view is seen.

Far more popular than the Pilatus, and far more famous is the Rigi. Long before many of the popular resorts of today were even heard of, the Rigi was known,—nay this Queen of the mountains, as some would interpret the name (Rigi—Regina Montium) is one of the most famous mountains of the world. For while it is not so high as scores of other Swiss mountains, yet its position between the three lakes of Lucerne, Zug, and Lowerz make it a unique point of view. From its summit or kulm, one can see parts, at least, of nearly all the Swiss cantons, and even far beyond the frontiers of neighboring lands. Everywhere our eyes rest on blue lakes, flourishing villages, green meadows, dark forests, clear running streams; far off to the north the great plain with its cities, towns, and rivers shuts in by the mountains of the Black Forest; and all along the horizon, east and south and west, the great unending chain of mountains rolling on like waves of a mighty sea; while at our feet we see in full relief the Lake of Lucerne, and all its winding shores from Lucerne to Flüelen.

No wonder this famous view point is so popular (more than one hundred thousand people visit it in the course of the summer) for it not only affords beautiful views, but is the most easily and comfortably reached mountain top in Switzerland. As early as 1763 the Rigi was visited by

a Zürich Pastor, Faesi, and from that time on occasional tourists visited it, until toward the year 1860, it is said, that from thirty thousand to forty thousand persons would climb the steep path to enjoy the view at its summit. It was not till 1871, however, that the newly invented rack and pinion system for mountain railroads was successfully applied to the Rigi, three years after the similar system had been installed on Mt. Washington in the White Mountains.

Of all the phases of nature in Switzerland, none is more famous or more beautiful than its lakes. Each one has a peculiar charm of its own, Geneva, Zug, Zürich, and Constance. It is probable, however, that most people would agree in saying that Lake Lucerne is the most beautiful of them all. The color of its water is of a deeper blue, the mountains rise more perpendicularly from its surface and all about is the charm of history and legend. We find many traces of all this in the works of great poets of all nations. As we shall see later, the whole upper part of the lake is full of Schiller's "William Tell."

The peculiar shape of the lake is given accurately by Aubrey de Vere,

> "In shape a cross, and walled with cliffs so high
> That o'er each aisle of that quadruple plain,
> No unfit roof appears the vaulted sky,
> It lies, a vast and crystal paven fane,
> A church, by nature built and not in vain
> Among the shadowing mountains."

Longfellow, Edwin Arnold, Campbell, Rogers and many others have touched on various phases of the beauty of Lake Lucerne, surrounded as it is by the four forest cantons (whence its German name, Vierwäldstättersee). Wordsworth, especially, has revealed his impressions as he passed through these scenes, in his characteristic, solemn and reflective style, reflections aroused by the Valley of the Reuss, Lake Uri, Tell's Chapel, Unterwalden, Engelberg, and Schwyz.

The shape of Lake Lucerne is very irregular, but seen

from the Rigi, it appears something like a cross, with the end of the foot bent almost at right angles, this bend being Lake Uri. Its length is twenty-three miles and its width varies from one-half mile to two miles. Its waters bathe portions of four of the most ancient cantons of Switzerland, Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, and Lucerne. On both sides of it rise the two pyramids of the Rigi and Pilatus, all along its shores are flourishing villages; and rapid steamboats laden with tourists are constantly sailing up and down, for in summer time there is a service between Lucerne and Flüelen, at the other end of the lake, eight times a day. I know of no more pleasant excursion on a bright clear day than to take one of these steamers at the Schweizerhof quay, get a comfortable seat on the upper deck, and prepare for a good time. The bell rings, the water is churned up behind, we rapidly leave behind us the town with its big hotels and slender church towers. The sky is blue, the air cool, but tempered with the warm rays of the summer sun. On board the boat an air of festivity reigns; men, women, and children are engaged in conversation; exclamations of admiration burst from those who are lovers of nature, the band begins to play, and in order that the inner man be not neglected, busy waiters hurry to and fro, dispensing eatables and drinkables. And now we approach the thriving village of Weggis, the steamer slows up, a crowd of people are seen on the landing-place, the gang-plank is cast ashore, and a fair exchange of passengers is made, the place of those who disembark being taken by those on the shore. Again the bell rings, the boat is off again, only to stop a short distance further down at Vitznau, the station for the Rigi railroad, and here the same busy scene repeats itself, only on a larger scale, for a great crowd are bent on the ascent of the Rigi. Once more we are off, going almost straight across the lake to the pretty little town of Beckenried, with its walnut trees in front, where the delegates of the Four Forest Cantons used to assemble; then back over the lake again to Gersau, and then to Brunnen, one of the busiest

and most important towns on the lake after Lucerne; for it is the port of the Canton Schwyz, a station on the St. Gotthard railroad, and a center of excursions. Here we disembark and prepare to visit the objects of interest, which are so numerous in this part of the lake, with more leisure and comfort than can be had by remaining on the steamer. For here in the southern arm of the lake, called Lake Uri, nature, history, legend and poetry combine to a greater extent than elsewhere, even in Switzerland, to attract the cultivated traveler. The story of William Tell, mere legend though it be, seems to invest with a subtle charm every object in the landscape. The one poet who has given world-wide currency to the legend, so that today scarcely an educated man in the civilized world is ignorant of it, is Schiller, whose drama has done more than any other book to make Switzerland a shrine for literary pilgrims. It is a singular fact that the author of a work so full of exact description never saw the land he describes. Many of his facts he obtained from Goethe, whose three visits made him acquainted with all phases of Switzerland. Few poets have described the charm of Swiss scenery so well as Schiller. Anyone who has been caught in the sudden storm, the Föhn, so frequent and so dangerous on Lake Uri, cannot fail to admire the accuracy of detail and the general effect of Schiller's description of the same. Never has a poet described so graphically the low-lying earth, as it is seen from a great height, through the rifts of the clouds; the very spirit of the mountain world breathes in the following lines:

"The mountain-tops thunder, the cliffs tremble all,
The huntsman climbs fearless the steep, rocky wall;
He strides on undaunted
O'er ice-fields and snow;
There spring never blossoms
There green things ne'er grow.
Like a sea swims the mist 'twixt the earth and the sky,
No longer the cities of men, meet his eye;
Through the rifted cloud only
The world can be seen;
Far under the vapors
The broad fields of green."

From Brunnen many pleasant excursions can be made. First of all we take a walk along the famous Axenstrasse, a road eight and a half miles long, skirting the steep shores of the lake, and for the most part hewn out of the solid rock. There are many tunnels, with outlooks or windows cut out of the solid stone, affording glimpses of the lake, and the snowy slopes of the Uri Rothstock beyond. No more picturesque views can be found in Switzerland than those that come upon us from time to time as we walk along this remarkable road. One place we cannot fail to visit is the little ledge of rock, at the base of the Axenberg, known as Tell's Platte, which is a station on the St. Gotthard railroad. This is the spot where, according to tradition, Tell leaped ashore from the boat in which he was being carried off as a prisoner by Gessler. It shares with the Rütli, on the other side of the lake, the glory of being one of the chief objects of the pious pilgrimage of all lovers of freedom. On this small ledge there is a chapel, rebuilt in 1883, on the site of another chapel, said to have been erected by the canton Uri in 1388. The interior of the chapel is adorned by four frescoes by Stackelberg, representing first, the scene in the market place at Altdorf, just after Tell has shot the apple from his son's head; when Gessler, seeing the second arrow and learning that it was destined for him, in case Tell had slain his own child, is ordering the arrest of the patriot; next, we see the scene at Tell's Platte itself. Tell has jumped ashore, pushed back the boat into the angry waters of the lake with his foot, leaving Gessler mad with disappointment and rage, and fear; then comes the scene in the Hohle Gasse, where Tell lay in wait for the tyrant and shot him through the heart; the final fresco depicts the "everlasting compact" at Rütli; the three patriots Stauffacher, Fürst, and the man from Melchi, stand with their right hands raised, and their left hands clasped together, swearing to keep the everlasting compact, that corner stone of Swiss liberty.

The Axenstrasse leads as far as Flüelen, at the southern

end of the lake, eight miles from Brunnen, where if we have the time, we can take the train and in a few minutes we reach Altdorf, a mile and a half away. This is the place where Tell performed his exhibition of skilled archery on the apple; his birth-place is said to be the little village of Bürglen, a mile away. A statue in bronze stands now on the spot where the apple was shot,—representing the hero and his son. Some years ago I was witness of a pleasant scene in this quiet little village. A number of school boys, led by their teachers had come on a pilgrimage to Altdorf. They had gone the round of sight-seeing, had seen the old flags of Uri, and the Capuchin monastery, and now gathered piously about the statue and listened to a patriotic lecture by one of the teachers and then, with bared heads, sang songs expressive of love for the Fatherland.

But we have lingered enough in these charming places, and must hurry back to Brunnen, for we have one more trip to make, the most enjoyable of all. Instead of taking the steamboat, which stops only a few minutes at each station, and instead of joining the eager, noisy crowd of tourists, whose constant chatter in all European languages disturbs the meditation and reverence which ought to accompany our visits to these places, hallowed by nature and by patriotic memories and by art, we would do far better to hire one of the numerous row-boats, and row out over the lake. We must take care, however, that the Föhn does not catch us, for this dreaded wind swoops down upon the waters, almost without warning, lashes the waters of the lake into a tumultuous mass of waves, and renders all navigation fraught with danger. On a clear day, however, nothing is pleasanter than this boat ride over Lake Uri; the dark blue waters sparkle in the sunlight; far away to the north the irregular outline of the shores fades away in the distance; nearer at hand we see the green slopes of Seelisberg, and dominating all the Uri-Rothstock. We cross to the other side, skirt along the perpendicular walls, pass by the Mythenstein, a rock eighty feet high, bearing the inscription "Dem Sanger

Tells" (to the Poet of Tell), and finally come to the landing place whence the ascent is made to the Rütli, a sloping meadow, or opening in the forest, as is indicated by its name. As every body knows this is the spot where on the night of November 7, 1307, thirty-three men met and swore to drive out their oppressors. Just as at Tre Fontane near Rome, they show you three springs, formed by the head of St. Paul, which after he was decapitated, struck the ground three times, so here we are shown three springs of clear water, said to have been formed on the spot where the three great patriots stood, Stauffacher, Fürst, and the man from Melchi.

It is hard to indulge in revery and poetry in the midst of the constant stream of travelers coming and going, and yet a short visit to these famous shrines of Swiss liberty cannot help touching deeply our hearts and imagination. And as the shades of evening come upon us, as the sun sets behind the mountains, the stars come out, a cool breeze blows over the lake, and we row back softly to Brunnen, the spirit of the place sinks deep into our hearts, and the words of Mrs. Hemans rise unconsciously to our minds:

"The Patriot Three that met of yore
Beneath the midnight sky,
And leagued their hearts on the Grütli shore,
In the name of liberty!
Now silently they sleep
Amidst the hills they freed.
But their rest is only deep,
Till their country's hour of need.
For the Kühreihen's notes must never sound
In a land that wears the chain,
And the vines on Freedom's holy ground
Untrampled must remain!
And the yellow harvests wave
For no stranger's hand to reap,
While within their silent cave
The men of Grütli sleep."

IV. The Bernese Oberland.

ONE of the oldest of Swiss passes is the Brünig, over which we go by railroad to Meiringen and Interlaken. Leaving the station at Lucerne we pass by Alpnachstad, a starting point for the Pilatus railroad, traverse a long valley and then begin to climb to the top of the Pass. There is one place where it is worth while to stop for an hour or two, if we have the time, Sarnen, the capital of the western part of the Canton Unterwalden; for here in the Rathhaus, is preserved the oldest version of the story of William Tell, in the so-called "White Book of Sarnen." But the vast majority of tourists have no time for such details, and hurry on, passing by the Sarner See, the little town of Lungern, and having reached the top of the Pass, begin the descent of the steep rocks which soon brings them to Meiringen. Leaving Meiringen for the time being, we pass on to Brienz where we take the steamer and in about an hour and a half are set ashore at Interlaken. This famous place, as its name indicates, occupies the little alluvial plain called the Bödeli, situated between the twin lakes of Thun and Brienz. Today it is one of the most popular and fashionable of all Swiss resorts. The main street, the Höheweg, is flanked by large and handsome hotels, by shops for the sale of wood-carving and various trinkets, by dance-halls and by the Kursall, that indispensable adjunct of all European resorts, where the conventional band is always playing and the well-known and rather mild form of gambling, *les petits chevaux* (the little horses) is always in active operation. During the whole season this famous street is crowded with visitors from all parts of the world, and always on the horizon between the steep cliffs that shut in the valley of Lauterbrunnen is seen the snowy summit of the famous Jungfrau.

Pleasant as Interlaken is in itself, it is chiefly important as a center for all sorts of excursions. But before, we enter

upon these, it will pay us to spend a day or so in visiting Bern. This is easily done, for the old town is less than an hour's ride from Thun by railroad.

Prison Tower—Bern.

In the rush to get through the regular Swiss round, travelers usually slight this most interesting old town. But they little know the charm that it contains. Among the pleasantest memories of the many Swiss sojourns it has been my good fortune to enjoy, none is more pleasant than the month spent here some years ago. There was a pleasant party of us, among whom there was one American family, who had come to spend a day or two, and had ended by spending a month. We had an excellent boarding place, in the Pension Herter on the Kramgasse. This is situated in one of the oldest houses of Bern, and is still the meeting-place for the guild of gold- and silversmiths, whose members consist of the oldest families of the city, some of them running back five or six hundred years. One of my neighbors at the table belonged to the famous noble family of von Mülinen, which dates from the very foundation of the city.

The streets of Bern are unlike those of any other city, for the sidewalks are built under the second story of the houses themselves, supported by immense arches and pillars. Thus one can walk for a long distance in a covered arcade, gazing into the windows of the shops on the one side, and out into the street through the open arcades on the other. The streets themselves are picturesque and attractive. Everywhere we see handsome fountains, with the streams of clear running water; on market days the peasants come in from the country and line the street with their wagons containing fruit, vegetables, flowers, and the various kinds of meat.

The Giessbach Falls—Bernese Alps.

Our room opened out on the Kramgasse, which is one of the busiest streets of Bern. There was a little iron balcony outside the window, and one could sit literally for hours watching the scene below. There was a fountain below, the only source from which all the inhabitants of the neighboring houses could obtain their water, and a constant succession of women and children were going and coming. It was in the early fall, and the old hereditary citizens of the town enjoyed, as one of the prerogatives, the privilege of getting their fuel from the municipal forests. So all day long we saw them sawing and chopping the logs in the open street.

There are a good many things to see in Bern, the old clock-tower, with its moving figures, which come out at the end of the hour, the famous bear-pits, which Oliver Wendell Holmes says were the only things he remembered of the place, the Federal building, the Town library, and the old Cathedral. Then there is the famous view of the Alps from the Kleine Schanze, the great attraction of the town. If the traveler sees nothing else, he must see the bear-pit and this view.

But there are likewise many delightful trips in the country round about, to the flourishing villages ensconced in the deep velvet green meadows, to the Gurten hill with its fine view.

One trip I took will long linger in my memory, that on a bright October day, to the village of Langnau, where

I was invited to dine with the village pastor, in the quaint old Swiss chalet, in which he lived, surrounded by his children like a patriarch. It was from this village, or rather the valley of the Emmen in which it is situated, that many of the earliest settlers of Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, came in the beginning of the eighteenth century. And as I sat in the cheerful sunny room of the town-hall, where the archives were kept, I found as I turned over the old family records, running back to the sixteenth century, many a name which has become well-known in American history today.

But we must leave Bern, however reluctantly, and hasten back to Interlaken. Before we go, however, let us ascend to the hill of the Schänzli and see once more the famous view of the Alps. Before us lies the city, with the forest covered Gurten beyond, and to the left the long line of the Bernese Alps, the Wetterhorn, the Finsteraarhorn, the Eiger, the Mönch, and the Jungfrau, "faintly flushed and phantom fair" on the distant horizon. Matthew Arnold has well caught the spirit of this scene, in his poem entitled the "Terraces at Bern:"

"The clouds are on the Oberland,
The Jungfrau snows look faint and far,
But bright are those green fields at hand
And through these fields comes down the Aar."

There are so many excursions to be taken from Interlaken that we hardly know where to begin. There are the places on the lake of Thun, such as Spiez, Beatenberg, or Thun itself. There are the similar trips to be taken on the Lake of Brienz, especially the famous waterfall of the Giessbach, one of the

Village Graveyard, Switzerland.

most popular of all spots in the Bernese Oberland, where we see the great body of water leaping in seven cascades, from rock to rock, in the midst of the dark green foliage of the forest, the total height of the falls being nearly one thousand feet.

Nearer at hand, and within easy walking distance is the Kleine Rugen, and the ruined castle of Unspunnen, which Longfellow has made known in his "Hyperion." Still more distant, and a hard yet exceedingly pleasant trip is that of the Schynige Platte and the Faulhorn, from which we get a magnificent near at hand view of the whole range of Bernese mountains.

Much has been said of the "Fremden-industrie" of Switzerland, the exploitation of foreign tourists; and it is true that a large proportion of the Swiss people make a living from this source. It shows itself in various ways, in the keeping of hotels, for the Swiss have gained an international reputation in this respect; many of the finest hotels in other lands are kept by Swiss, and one finds them as waiters scattered all over Europe. Another source of income is the exploitation of the scenery of their native land, every waterfall, every fine view, every mountain is made to become a source of income. This aspect of Swiss travel has been finely satirized by Daudet in his genial book, "Tartarin in the Alps," in which the hero is informed by his friend Bompard that the whole country is exploited by a rich stock company, with billions of dollars, and headquarters at Geneva and London. "Advance into the interior, you will not find the smallest corner which is not the occasion of tricks and manipulations like the machinery under the opera stage, cascades illuminated as bright as day, turnstiles at the entrance to glaciers, and everywhere to ascend the mountains, innumerable railroads."

In this last respect, Switzerland has indeed exploited her natural resources to a marvelous extent. Without coal, she has harnessed innumerable waterfalls and running streams, and developed a system of electrical engineering

The Reichenbach Falls—Meiringen.

which is unsurpassed. The whole system of mountain railroads in Switzerland dates from the invention of the Swiss engineers, Näff, Zschokke, and Ruggenbach, about the time that a similar road was opened on Mt. Washington in the White Mountains, in 1868. The first of these Swiss roads was opened May 21, 1870, on the Rigi. From that time they have multiplied a hundredfold, until today, there is hardly a mountain or hill throughout the length and breadth of the land that has not its rack and pinion, or hydraulic railroad. There is no better place to study the subject of mountain railroads than Interlaken, and its environs, especially the round trip which everybody is expected to make to Lauterbrunnen, Wengern, Grindelwald and back again. This trip, which in its way is unique, can be made with the utmost comfort. We take the train at the east end of the town, wind around the broad alluvial plain, past the station of Wilderswil, where those bound for the Schynige Platte

change cars; we cross the Lütschine river, pass through the woods, and finally reach the station of Zweilütschinen, so-called because it is the junction of the Black and White Lütschine, the former descending from Grindelwald, the latter from Lauterbrunnen Valley. The road to Grindelwald branches off here; but we continue our journey, along the White Lütschine into the valley of Lauterbrunnen. As we advance and see on all sides the waterfalls leaping from the cliffs we understand at once the name of the valley, "nothing but fountains." The valley itself is exceedingly beautiful and picturesque, so narrow that it seems a mere cleft in the gigantic mass of limestone cliffs, varying from one thousand to fifteen hundred feet in height. At the village of Lauterbrunnen itself, the sun's rays only penetrate the valley in winter, at eleven o'clock in the morning, and disappear at a correspondingly early hour in the afternoon.

The village is now a typical tourist center, with its hotels, groups of guides, and shops for the sale of wood carving, and various souvenirs. But nothing can destroy the magnificence of its scenery; to the left the mighty mass of the Jungfrau rises almost perpendicularly from the valley, to the right rises the Breithorn; all along the valley are magnificent waterfalls such as the Trümmelbach, and around the end of the valley, the Schmadribach. But the most famous of all falls, perhaps the best known of all European waterfalls is the Staubbach, or the Dust-Brook. This strikingly beautiful fall leaps from the precipice above and falls a sheer thousand feet, to the valley below, but long before it reaches the bottom, the water is turned into spray which sways to and fro in the wind.

There is one place the traveler cannot afford to fail to visit while here, and that is Mürren, perched on the edge of the steep precipice above Lauterbrunnen. There is a strangely attractive combination here of a rich Alpine flora, flowers of every kind and color embroidering the deep green velvet of the meadows, and the wildest and most magnificent of moun-

The Bernese Alps.

Interlaken and the Jungfrau—Canton of Bern.

Lauterbrunnen Valley—Bern.

The Jungfrau and the Mountain Railroad.

The Wetterhorn and the Grindelwald—Bern.

The Mönch and Eiger—Bern.

The Mönch and Eiger—Bern.

Hotel des Alpes, the Breithorn and the Mittaghorn—Mürren.

Mürren—Bern.

tain scenery. Right in front of us is the tremendous mass of the Jungfrau, so near that apparently it could be reached by a stone thrown by a child; beyond it are the Eiger, the Mönch, and the whole range of giant peaks covered with a mantle of dazzling snow, with the great rivers of ice flowing between them. Especially at sunset is the scene beautiful, when the white light of noonday has passed away and the highest peaks are flushed with that indescribably beautiful phenomenon the "Alpine Glow." So, too, the morning is beautiful beyond compare, as we look through our window in the hotel, while the air is cool and clear, and the first rays of the sun touch the snow-clad mountain tops, and we gaze entranced, as fuller and fuller,

"The dawn like a river comes rolling in."

All these experiences are well summed up by John Addington Symonds who loved the Alps with a passionate love, and who has described their charm in poetry and prose better than anyone else:

"At Mürren let the morning lead thee out,
To walk upon the cold and cloven hills
To hear the congregated mountains shout
Their paean of a thousand foaming rills.
Raimented with intolerable light
The sun-peaks stand above them row on row,
Arising, each a seraph in his might."

But it is time now to start on the most famous railroad journey in Switzerland, from Lauterbrunnen over the Wengern Alp to Grindelwald, and back to Interlaken. Climbing the steep slopes on the other side of Lauterbrunnen, we soon pass the pleasant little summer resort of Wengen, and with the snow-clad mountains and glaciers constantly before us, we climb toward the Wengern Alp. Here we will do well to leave the train and walk as far as the Little Scheidegg. The walk is an easy one, with only a gradual ascent and can be made in less than an hour. We should linger, however, as long as possible on the Wengern Alp, situated directly opposite the Jungfrau, which is only separated from us by

the deep ravine of the Trümleten valley, from which it seems to rise almost with its entire height of over 13,000 feet.

From here we have an excellent opportunity to examine the interesting alpine phenomenon of avalanches. For in warm summer weather they can be seen two or three times an hour. First we see far up the mountain a slight movement, and then a small quantity, as it seems, of snow begins to fall; then it increases in size and finally the mighty mass can be seen rolling and tumbling over the steep rocky sides of the mountain and finally fall into the Trümleten valley at its base. The distance, however, is too great, over two miles, to allow us to appreciate the true grandeur of this phenomenon; with its powdery appearance, it is rather pretty than terrible. And yet there is nothing more dreaded by the mountaineer than these masses of soft and beautiful snow, and the annals of Swiss mountain climbing are full of terrible accidents.

One of the most interesting chapters of Professor John Tyndall's "Hours of Exercise among the Alps," describes the death of his old guide, Bennen, on the Haut de Cry in February, 1864. They were crossing a snow-filled couloir, and had gotten nearly across, when they "heard a deep cutting sound. The snow-field split in two about fourteen or fifteen feet above us. The cleft was at first quite narrow, not more than an inch broad. An awful silence ensued; it lasted but a few seconds, and then it was broken by Bennen's voice, 'Wir sind alle verloren' (We are all lost). His words were slow and solemn, and those who knew him felt what was really meant when spoken by such a man as Bennen. They were his last words. I drove my alpenstock into the snow, and brought the weight of my body to bear on it. I then waited. It was an awful moment of suspense. I turned my head towards Bennen to see whether he had done the same thing. To my astonishment, I saw him turn round, face the valley, and stretch out both arms. The speed of the avalanche increased rapidly, and before long I was covered up with snow and in utter darkness. Then with a jerk

I came to the surface again. I was on a wave of the avalanche and saw it before me as I was carried down. It was the most awful sight I ever witnessed. Around me I heard the horrid hissing of the snow, and far before me the thunderings of the foremost part of the avalanche." The narrator of this story was saved himself, but Bennen was dead, and there deep in the snow of the avalanche "was the grave of the bravest guide the Valais ever had or ever will have."

From the Little Scheidegg begins the descent to Grindelwald; but we cannot omit a visit here to the new railroad, which, when it is completed, will ascend to the very summit of the Jungfrau. The difficulties would seem to be insurmountable, but they were not so to the mind of Mr. Guyer Zeller of Zürich, who, encouraged by the success of so many other minor railroad undertakings in Switzerland, boldly planned and at once set to work to carry out a road up the Jungfrau. Power was easily obtained from the torrents and streams which pour down from the glaciers above. The route to be taken had to be a roundabout one, for between the Scheidegg and the Jungfrau was a tremendous gorge, with precipitous sides, and filled with glaciers and fields of snow, while the Trümmelbach torrent rushes down the valley of Lauterbrunnen with irresistible force. The road then had to go chiefly through the mountains themselves; and the experience gained in the construction of the St. Gotthard, Mt. Cenis, and Simplon tunnels was now put to use in boring through the very bowels of the mountains. The road runs for the first mile to the foot of the Eiger Glacier, then entering a tunnel, it begins to rise, until we reach the station of the Eigerwand, ten thousand feet above the level of the sea. This is assuredly one of the strangest railroad stations in the world. It is cut out of the solid rock, and the only source of light from the outside world is through the openings cut in the sides of the mountains. We approach them, and look out upon the strangely fascinating scene. The view extends over all the north of Switzerland and even parts of Alsace and Baden, in Germany.

But we have not yet reached the last station, that of Eismeer, another huge cave, 10,345 feet in altitude, with a restaurant, postoffice and other necessities for the modern traveler. This is the end of our journey for the present; the line will be carried later to the Jungfrau station, 13,428 feet high and then the remaining 242 feet will be made by means of an elevator, bringing the traveler thus in comfort to the very summit of this beautiful and once inaccessible mountain.

From the Little Scheidegg, the road leads steeply down to Grindelwald, an exceedingly picturesque village, which has become known in recent years as the seat of religious conventions, and has become not only a summer resort but a winter resort as well. The village is dominated by three gigantic mountains, the Eiger, the Mettenberg, and the Wetterhorn, and is a well-known starting-place for mountain climbing. A large corps of guides is always on hand. But the favorite trip for the ordinary tourist is that of the famous Grindelwald glacier.

One of the characteristic features of all Alpine scenery, of course, is the glaciers, which flow slowly, imperceptibly, yet surely, and inexorably crushing all obstacles, down the slopes of all great mountains. Every traveler in Switzerland has seen and admired these great rivers of ice, broken into frozen billows and crevasses, bearing on their mighty backs the mass of stones and rocks torn from the body of the mountain; everyone has seen the Rhone Glacier at the Furka, the Gorner Glacier at Zermatt, and the Mer de Glace at Chamonix. But the most convenient place to study these glaciers close at hand is at Grindelwald. For a short walk brings us to either the upper or lower glacier. Our first impression is one of disappointment, for the surface with its moraines, consisting of piles of dirt and loose stones, is anything but beautiful. Hence it will pay us to enter the artificial grotto cut deep into the interior of the glacier, where we can admire the beautiful blue color of the ice, seen here in all its virgin purity.

From Grindelwald we can walk, if we will, over the Grosse Scheidegg, an interesting journey of some eight hours, with beautiful views of the Rosenlaui glacier, the Wellhorn, Wetterhorn, and other mountains, and finally passing by Reichenbach falls to Meiringen at the entrance to the Hasli Valley. Or we can end our journey to the mountains of the Bernese Oberland more comfortably by taking the train back to Interlaken whence we started.

V. Swiss Mountain Passes, Railroads, and Tunnels

NO one can have a real conception of the charm and beauty of Switzerland who has not spent some time at least in walking over its passes. Thus only can we get an idea of the enormous difficulties of travel and commerce that once existed in the days before the railroad. In this present chapter then we are to give a brief outline of a trip which will take in some of the most famous of these mountain passes. Our objective point will be the valley of the Rhone and Zermatt, but we shall not by any means endeavor to take the shortest or most comfortable route. If that had been our thought we should take the boat from Interlaken to Spiez, the railroad thence to Frutigen, then the diligence to Kandersteg, whence a rough bridle path leads over the Gemmi, one of the wildest and grandest of all Alpine passes. We should pause a moment at the summit of this mighty wall of rock, 1,660 feet high, to enjoy the view of the Alps of the Valais, Monte Rosa, Weisshorn, Matterhorn, Dent Blanche, and others, while just below us wound the steep bridle path cut out of the solid rock.

Matthew Arnold in his poem entitled "Obermann," well describes the impression made by this extraordinary pass, when he tells how

"The awful alpine track
Crawls up its rocky stair;
The autumn storm winds drive the rack,
Close o'er it in the air.

"Behind are the abandoned baths,
Mute in the meadows lone;
The leaves are on the valley paths,
The mists are on the Rhone."

Down the narrow track, only five feet wide, we would make our way, till reaching the bottom we should visit the Baths of Leuk, where those who are afflicted with skin diseases, remain several hours a day in the water, with trays floating before them, on which are books, newspapers and various kinds of beverages. An easy walk of ten miles would then lead us to the Rhone valley, not far, by rail, from Visp, where the train can be taken to Zermatt.

But on our present trip we are to reach the same destination by a far more circuitous route. Taking the steamer at Interlaken we sail over the blue waters of Lake Brienz, where we take the train to Meiringen, the most important village of the Hasli Valley. It is now almost entirely new, for in 1891, while the dreaded Föhn was blowing, a fire broke out and in a short time nearly every building had become a victim to the flames. To the south rise the steep mountain walls, with the Reichenbach Falls, in which, as the reader of Conan Doyle will remember, Sherlock Holmes found his end, at least so it was supposed, until it pleased the author to revive him again. High on the opposite cliff, some two thousand feet high, and so steep that no carriage can ascend, is situated the picturesque valley of Reuti. Some years ago I had the pleasure of spending two weeks in this primitive, high-upland Swiss village, and of seeing close at hand the life of the Swiss peasant in his own home. No more beautiful place exists than this broad meadow-land or terrace, with its velvety green pastures, its clear running murmuring streams, which gently approach the edge of the enormous cliff, and then tumble down in torrents and cascades. And in the morning and at night-time from the

window of our chalet we could see across the narrow valley, the gleaming of the white foam of the Reichenbach Falls, and above it the Rosenlaui glacier and the snow-crowned summits of the Matterhorn, the Finsteraarhorn, and others, sparkling in the sunlight, or touched to silver by the soft light of the moon.

The occupation of the people of Reuti is chiefly that of raising cattle and making cheese. When we were there, most of the men were gone, having taken the cattle in the early spring to the mountain pastures, climbing higher and higher as the summer advanced, to return in the fall laden with the heavy cheeses, the sale of which was to furnish them with necessities and comforts during the long Alpine winter. It is worth while spending some time among the peasants of Switzerland. Those who know the country only from the hotels, get little idea of it. By meeting day by day, these simple folk whose ancestors fought at Morgarten, Sempach, and Grandson, noting their genuine piety, their sturdy character and kindly hearts, you will go away with an added respect for the country and a new idea of the benefits of freedom.

The Swiss are essentially a religious people. It is no wonder then that the Salvation Army has made great strides among them. One Sunday morning half a dozen lads and lasses came toiling up the steep ziz-zag path that leads from Meiringen, and taking up a position at the cross roads began to sing, pray, and exhort, while the people, attracted by the sounds, came across the fields in all directions.

One scene that occurred at Reuti is indelibly fixed in my memory. At the house where we were stopping was a minister from a small town in the Canton of Bern. One Sunday morning he conducted services on the little plateau behind our chalet, beneath the spreading branches of a tree. There we sat on that beautiful day in early July, and sang the grand old German chorals, while far below us was the Hasli valley, with the Aar running through it like a silver thread, till it was lost in the blue waters of Lake

Brienz; on the opposite side of the valley we could see the Reichenbach Falls and the Scheideck Pass, while far above all rose the snow-covered summits of the Weisshorn, the Wetterhorn, and the Eiger. All about, the air was fragrant with the odor of grass and flowers, and musical with the song of birds and the murmur of running water. The sermon was simple, yet appropriate. Many a time as I think of that Sunday morning do the words of Pastor Lenz's text come back to me with new meaning: "Ich hebe meine Augen zu den Bergen wovon mir die Hilfe kommt," "I will lift up mine eyes to the hills, whence cometh my help."

From Meiringen we start on our first trip on foot over an Alpine pass, that is, up the Hasli valley and over the Grimsel to the Rhone glacier. It is a long and fatiguing journey, yet fraught with the pleasure that comes from clear fresh air, constant change of fine scenery, good appetite, wholesome fatigue, and sound sleep. On the way we pass one of the finest of Swiss waterfalls, the Handeck, where the river Aar flings itself sheer down two hundred and forty feet, breaks into a mass of foam, on which the sun casts the everchanging colors of the rainbow. Stopping for dinner at the Grimsel Hospice, we soon after reach the Grimsel Pass, which marks the boundary between the Canton of Bern and the Valais. Near by is the little dark and gloomy lake called the "Totensee," the Lake of the Dead, so called because in that epic struggle between the Austrian and French army which was fought out amid these wild surroundings, the dead were buried in its waters. Down the steep slopes of the Marienwand we now hasten and reach the Rhone Glacier Hotel at the foot, and add our little share to the busy scene, the crowds of tourists coming from Brigue, or the Furka, or as we have just done, from the Grimsel. At the head of the valley is the Rhone Glacier, one of the finest and most imposing of all the glaciers in Switzerland, a great frozen waterfall of ice, breaking into a thousand fantastic shapes. Issuing from its foot pours forth the torrent which is the source of the Rhone, that

river which tumbling down the valley to Brigue, turns sharply to the right, then flows on, ever becoming broader and deeper till widening out it forms a lake thirty-five miles long, whence issuing swift as an arrow at the city of Geneva, it makes its way over the pleasant land of France, finally to pour itself into the Mediterranean Sea, not far from Marseilles.

From the Rhone Glacier the nearest route to Zermatt is straight down the valley, following the river to Brigue where we can take the train to Visp. But here again we prefer the harder toil of climbing the Furka, passing the Rhone Glacier, of the fantastic ice-masses, of which we obtain admirable views, reach the top of the Furka Pass, whence a magnificent view is obtained of the Bernese Alps, then down the long zigzags of the Realp, to the Unseren valley below, to Hospenthal and thence to Goeschenen, the starting point of the roads over the Furka and the St. Gotthard Pass, and at the entrance of the famous tunnel.

It is so easy today to pass from Switzerland to Italy that it is hard for us to get any conception of the difficulties of traveling in ancient and medieval times. It is true that even in the time of the Romans there was a road over the Alps for the passage of armies and commerce, but it was not more than seven feet wide; this was called the Summus Penninus—the St. Bernard of today—known to everybody for its hospice, its famous dogs, and Longfellow's poem, "Excelsior." There were smaller roads over the Simplon, the Splügen, the Julier, and the Septimer in the Rhaetian Alps. During the middle ages several others were built. The St. Gotthard was made a foot-path about 1250, and a bridle path in 1293. The Hospice on the summit was founded in 1374. In 1707 it was widened enough to allow the passage of sleighs, and in 1775, an Englishman, named Greville, rode over it for the first time in a carriage. A new era opened for the Swiss passes when in 1800-1806, Napoleon had the Simplon built, which was regarded with admiration mingled with wonder, on account of its six hundred bridges, gal-

Gemmi Pass—Canton du Valais.

The Rhone Glacier.

Simplon Valley—Simplon Pass.

The Kandersteg Valley.

Hospice of St. Bernard—Canton du Valais.

Lake of Como—Italy.

leries, tunnels, houses of refuge, etc. Spurred on by the success of this new pass, the others were quickly made available for carriages, the St. Gotthard in 1818-1828, the Splügen and the other Rhaetian passes later.

Today, however, few people make use of the St. Gotthard except the tourist making his journey on foot, in quest of exercise and health; for the famous St. Gotthard railroad makes the journey from Switzerland to Italy in a few minutes. This tunnel was looked upon in its time as one of the triumphs of railroad engineering. It was begun in 1872, finished in 1880, and cost over $10,000,000. It is nine and a quarter miles in length, and ascends from Göschenen to its highest point, 3,786 feet above the sea level, and then descends again to Airolo on the Italian side. It can be traversed by express train in less than a quarter of an hour. It is a strange sensation that comes over us as we leave Göschenen, and see a little dark hole in the side of the mountain before us, into which we plunge; then after a short period of darkness, lighted by lanterns, we issue out on the other side. The change is indeed striking, we have passed from north to south, the air is warmer, the sky is

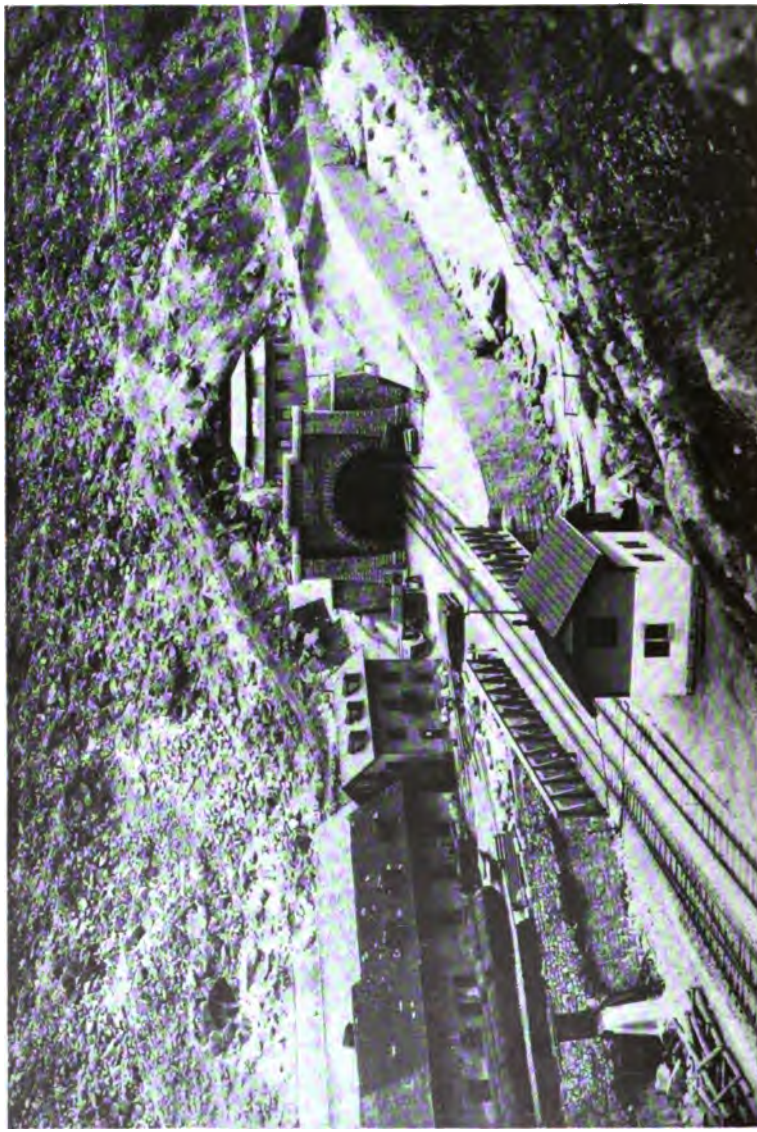
blue, the Swiss chalets are replaced by the white stucco or stone houses of the Italians.

We might return to Switzerland by the same route, but it will be an instructive journey to return by the newer and longer tunnel of the Simplon, and at the same time we can have at least a glimpse of the exceedingly beautiful Italian lakes, which after all belong in part at least to Switzerland. We shall have time, however, only for a fleeting trip.

Instead then of leaving the train at Airolo, we go on to Locarno, beautifully situated on Lake Maggiore; a town which belongs to Switzerland, although in architecture, scenery, and character of the people it is typically Italian. Had we time we should enjoy a trip on the steamer over the beautiful Lake Maggiore, the largest of the group, as its name indicates, visiting Pallanza, Laveno, Baveno, the Borromean Islands, and, the gem of them all, the Isola Bella.

But remaining on the boat, as far as Luino, we then descend, and take the steam tramway to Ponte Tresa on Lake Lugano; then by boat again to Lugano and Porlezza. Shortly after leaving Lugano, the boat passes by Oria, where for many years has lived the distinguished patriot, poet, and novelist, Antonio Fogazzaro, whose novel translated into English under the title of "The Saint," has made him well

Lake of Lugano—General View.



Entrance to St. Gotthard Tunnel.

known to English and American readers. In one of his most beautiful poems, in which the names of many of the little hills and valleys we are now passing occur, he reproduces with singular felicity the half melancholy impression made on a deeply religious man, as he listens at eventide to the bells as they call to one another from mountain and valley,

(All the bells speak)
"Come let us pray and weep,
From the heights and from the deep;
For the living, for them that sleep,
For so much sin unknown, and so much pain,
Have mercy Lord!
All suffering and pain,
That does not pray to thee;
All error that in vain
Does not give way to thee;
All love that must complain,
Yet yields no sway to thee,
Pardon, O Holy One!
(Echoes from the valley)
O Holy One."

From Porlezza we take the steam tramway again as far as Menaggio, on Lake Como. This lake, perhaps the most beautiful of all Italian lakes, is likewise fraught with many literary and historical reminiscences. Here is the scene of Manzoni's famous romance the "Betrothed," and here in the town of Como, is the birth-place of the elder and the younger Pliny, and of the famous physicist, Volta, whose name has become universalized as a unit in electrical measurements.

One of the loveliest spots in the world is Bellaggio, situated at the base of the promontory between the two arms of the lake, with its handsome villas and gardens and hotels in the midst of a landscape which unites almost every element of natural beauty, lofty mountains, clear, blue waters of the lake, trees and flowers, and grass, and over all the soft and tender blue of an Italian sky.

But again we must hurry on, this time back towards Switzerland by another route; from Como by rail to Laveno, on Lake Maggiore, then by steamer to Stresa and then by railroad to Domodossola and the Simplon.

A number of years ago I had been spending the summer in Italy and was returning home by way of Switzerland. I took the train to Domodossola, and thence the diligence over the Simplon Pass; for the plan of a tunnel was then unknown. I shall never forget that ride, especially the long descent from the summit of the pass down the steep sides of the mountains. The sun had set, night had come on, the light had faded and the stars came out. Far beyond the steep valley rose the mountains, with their covering of ice and snow, and away up on high, so high that it seemed as if they struck the very zenith, were the glaciers and snow fields shining like great masses of silver under the light of the moon, which seemed almost to rest upon them.

Today the traveler need no longer cross the Simplon in this primitive way; another tunnel has been built, still longer and still more marvelous as a piece of engineering skill than that of the St. Gotthard. Whereas the latter is only nine and one-quarter miles in length, the Simplon is twelve and one-quarter miles. It is constructed with a double passage, each sixteen and one-half feet wide and separated by a distance of fifty-five feet between their axes. It is straight throughout, except a short curve at each end in order to join its tracks with the outside railroad lines. The most striking difference between this tunnel and the St. Gotthard is the grade, for it is only two per thousand on the Swiss side and seven per thousand on the Italian side, the altitude of the former being 2,250 feet, that of the latter being 2,076, while the summit is only 2,310 feet. An enormous saving of the cost might have been made by driving the tunnel at a much higher altitude, as was done in the case of the St. Gotthard. As it is, however, the Simplon can be used for express services, and can carry freight at far less expense than the St. Gotthard with its high grade. This tunnel brings Geneva and French Switzerland into closer communication with the Adriatic railroads of Italy, and also shortens the distance between Calais and Milan, eighty and ninety-five miles respectively over other routes.

VI. In the Heart of the Alps

FROM Brigue, the first station on the Swiss side of the tunnel, we go directly to Visp, at the entrance of the Visp Valley. From Visp to Zermatt is only twenty-two miles. Yet when taken on foot, as was necessary when I first visited it, it is a long and weary day's journey. The second time I visited Zermatt, the road was partly built, but from Stalden on, it was incomplete. In order to save time, as soon as we left the train, although the night was not far off, we started out on foot, hoping to get as far as Niklaus that night. I shall never forget that night journey. We went forward in utter darkness, so thick that we could not see where to place our feet; the rocks on one side and the deep ravine on the other, were so shrouded in darkness that they could not be distinguishd from each other, and we were continually in danger of making a false step. Far below us we could hear the roar of the tumbling waters of the Visp. Above us the walls of the narrow valley rose almost perpendicularly, as it seemed in the darkness; in the narrow strip of sky above the stars shone with unusual luster, while far towards the top of the mountain on the other side of the valley, was a single light shining "like a good deed in a naughty world," from the hut or chalet of some upland shepherd.

The last visit I made to Zermatt was more comfortable, if not more enjoyable. It was made in the cars of the new railroad, crowded with tourists, noisy with idle chatter, which completely put to flight the deeper sentiments that come from the high mountains. Yet when we arrive at Zermatt and have engaged our rooms, and have passed out of the crowded streets with their hotels, shops, and idlers, even a few hundred yards away, we feel that here indeed is the very shrine of mountain worship.

So universal is this feeling today that it is hard for us to realize that it has not always existed, yet a brief glance at the past will show that the love of the Alps is of compara-

tively recent origin. The modern attitude toward nature differs from that of the ancients, especially in regard to the wilder aspects thereof. Neither the Greeks nor the Romans looked on mountains as adding any beauty to the landscape, except on the horizon, where distance was supposed to "lend enchantment to the view." As Humboldt says in his Kosmos "Of the everlasting snow of the Alps as it reddens in the light of the setting or rising sun, of the beauty of the azure ice of the glacier, of all the grandeur of Swiss landscapes, not a single description has come down to us from antiquity." The same statement is true of the middle ages, during the whole course of which the only sentiments inspired by wild mountainous scenery were those of antipathy. It is an interesting fact that of the many thousands who crossed the Alps in either direction, not one, whether poet, painter, scholar, or merchant, had a good word for the scenery through which he passed. The eminent Italian scholar Lonardo Bruni (1369-1444) says: "When I looked upon these eternal and enormous mountain masses, deep horror seized upon me, and I even now cannot think of them without a shudder;" and one hundred years later Sebastian Münster (1489-1552) declared that as he stood on the Gemmi Pass he shuddered "even to his very bones."

But a change in the attitude of the world toward the Alps had begun. Already in the sixteenth century the famous botanist Konrad Gessner of Zürich declared that as long as God gave him life he had resolved to climb one or more mountains every year, partly to study the Alpine flora, partly to strengthen his bodily health and refresh his mind. In 1624 John Jacob Grasser of Bâle praises the mountains; from 1702-1711 the Zürich physician Jacob Schenchzer with his pupils made and described many Alpine trips. In 1729 appeared Haller's poem "Die Alpen," which was so popular that in 1777 it had run through thirty editions. This poem drew the attention of all Europe to Switzerland, and started that admiration which has been growing ever since. Yet even this admiration was different from the modern moun-

tain worship as it is seen in Wordsworth and Ruskin. The earlier travelers to Switzerland confined their attention chiefly to the manners and customs of the country, and what they most admired was the simple life and the idyllic happiness of the primitive pastoral people, such as they had seen them in Haller's poetry and such as they had tried to find them again in actual life. Even so enthusiastic a lover of nature as Klopstock, who visited Zürich in 1750, showed to Bodmer's astonishment no curiosity to view the Alps, either from near or far. Goethe's admiration sounds somewhat perfunctory, and in his "Letters from Switzerland," instead of describing the beauty of Geneva, he gives the story of an adventure that no self-respecting man of today would dare to confess. Even after Rousseau had given the impulse to the deeper love for the mountains, voices in protest were heard here and there. In 1760, the year in which the "Nouvelle Héloise" was published, the Bernese Gruner said of Guttanen in the Haslithal, which today everybody finds so picturesque, "Here nature has gathered together everything fearful and hideous;" and ten years later George Füssli found nothing but a "horrible mountain" in Engelberg, which "loftily and prettily situated" as Baedeker puts it, attracts thousands of visitors every year. Even Chateaubriand, the great apostle of nature worship in France, declares that while mountains were all right as forming a background, yet the feelings excited by their ruggedness and sterility were painful. "Let no one ask me," he says, "to admire the long rocky ridges, the precipices, the ravines, the windings in and out of the Alpine Valleys."

As we shall see later, it was Rousseau who gave the mightiest impulse to the love of the Alps, and he is the forerunner of all that vast army of worshippers who come yearly to the various mountain resorts, and especially to Zermatt, in order to worship the spirit that hovers about these "eldest altars of creation," as Goethe calls them.

Whence comes this compellent charm? It is not altogether from their picturesqueness, says Toeppfer, nor the

gigantic wonders which attract the eye. "Novelty, yes, without a doubt, especially for the denizens of cities. The aspect so like that of death, solitude, eternal silence; our own existence, so frail, so fleeting, but living and endowed with thought, with will and affection, placed in contact with inanimate existence and the mute grandeur of these beings without life. Hence come, it seems to me, the vague thoughts which charm and stir the soul while gazing on these things; poetry, indistinct but mighty, and which for the very reason that it directs our thoughts towards the great mysteries of creation, captivates and elevates the soul. More than one man who has forgotten God upon the plains, remembers him again among the mountains." No one has better expressed in poetry the essence of the influence of the mountains than the following lines of a recent writer:

"I wish I could get the peace of the mountains into me!
The wind roars over them, singing up from the sea!
There is nothing that lasts, they say, but God and the soul;
They have cowls of the mist, and rain for their garments grey;
The world's a dream, where ever the death bells toll;
There is nothing that lives, they say, but God and the soul.
I wish I could get the peace of the mountains into me,
And not have all the world a trouble to me."

Our first visit at Zermatt is to the little churchyard, where repose the bodies of those who have died a violent death among the mountains; there we find the graves of the first victims of the great disaster which marked the first ascent of the Matterhorn, Hudson, the youthful Hadow, on whose tomb we read the pathetic inscription placed there by his parents, "Ita, Pater, quoniam sic fuit placitum ante te," and Michel Croz. Other graves show us likewise the tragic side of the mountains, show us that the mountain glory has its accompaniment in the mountain gloom.

For as we look over the annals of Switzerland we find them strewn with the records of disaster, to individuals or to whole villages and cities. Avalanches, landslides, floods, and fire have from time to time swept over the land. There is the sinking of the city of Zug into the lake, we have

already spoken of; there is the total destruction of Meiringen, when the dreaded Föhn blew over it with its fiery breath, and left it a mass of smoldering ashes; there is that awful disaster in the village of Elm in the Canton of Glarus, September 11, 1881, the greatest and most famous of all Alpine landslides. There was a mountain that overtopped the village, the Plattenbergkopf, with a precipitous side and a wooded summit, that faced the traveler coming up the valley. About half way up there is a bed of fine slate, and for years the natives had quarried this slate, which proved a source of profit to the whole community. From time to time warnings were given as to the danger of thus undermining the steep hill; cracks opened overhead in all directions; in 1879, a huge crevasse split the mountain across behind the top of the hill, and it gradually widened as the years went on. By August, 1881, it was between twelve and fifteen feet wide. But still the people refused to realize the danger. On September 7, masses of rock began to fall from the hill, strange noises were heard in its bowels, and finally work was suspended. All through the tenth, and the morning of the eleventh of September every quarter of an hour or so, falls of rock occurred and the mountain groaned and rumbled incessantly. The eleventh of September was a wet Sunday. The boys of the village were full of excitement, and could hardly be kept from going up to the hill. In the afternoon, a number of men gathered at an inn in the upper village, just at the foot of the laboring mountain, to watch the falls. Another group of persons gathered at a relative's house to celebrate a christening. Many of the people in the lower village were quite uninterested, and were engaged in their ordinary domestic duties. Suddenly at 5:15 p. m. a mass of the mountain broke away from the Plattenbergkopf. The ground bent and broke up, the trees upon it nodded and folded together, and the rock engulfed them in its bosom, as it crashed down over the quarry, shot across the streams, and spread itself out on the flats. No one was killed by this fall, though the débris reached within

a dozen yards of the inn where the sightseers were gathered. The inhabitants of the upper village now began to be a little frightened. They made preparation for moving the aged and sick. People came from the lower village to help or to see or to talk. Some went into their houses to shut the windows and keep out the dust. No one was in any hurry. This first fall came from the east side of the Plattenbergkopf; seventeen minutes later a second and larger fall descended from the west side. The gashes made by the two united below the peak, and left its enormous mass isolated and without support. During the four minutes that followed the second fall every one seems to have been running about, but believing that the worst was over. Then those who were watching the mountain from a distance, beheld the whole upper portion of the Plattenbergkopf, 10,000,000 cubic meters of rock, suddenly shoot from the hillside. The forest upon it bent like a field of corn in a wind before being swallowed up; "the trees became mingled together like a flock of sheep." The mass slid or rather shot down with extraordinary velocity, till its foot reached the quarry. Then the upper part pitched forward horizontially straight across the valley, and on to the Düniberg. People in suitable positions could at this moment clearly see through beneath it to the hills beyond. People in the upper village could be seen racing about wildly. The falling mass looked so vast it seemed as if it were going to fill up the valley. A cloud of dust accompanied it and a great wind was flung before it, which swept across the valley, and overthrew the houses like haystacks. Hay, furniture, and the bodies of men were mingled with the house ruins in the air.

The avalanche shot with incredible swiftness across the valley. It pitched on to the Düniberg, struck it obliquely, and was thus deflected down the level and fertile valley-floor, which it covered in a few seconds, to the distance of nearly a mile and over its whole width, with a mass of rock débris, more than thirty feet thick. The internal friction of

the mass and the friction between it and the ground were insignificant forces compared with the tremendous momentum that was generated by the fall. The stuff flowed like liquid. The roar of the fall ceased suddenly; silence and stillness supervened. Survivors stood stunned where they were. Nothing moved. Then a great cry and wailing arose in the part of the village that was left.

This graphic account, which has been abridged from a chapter in Conway's "The Alps from End to End," will give more than all statistics some idea of the awful forces sleeping amid the grandeur and beauty of the Alpine world.

But enough of the tragic side of this subject. Zermatt is a place of natural scenery, so sublime and beautiful that it remains a joy forever. It is not so varied as Chamonix, does not offer so many pleasant excursions as Lucerne and Interlaken, but somehow or other, it grips us more firmly, and long after we have returned to the busy haunts of men, to the crowded halls and noisy streets of great cities, our thoughts go back with a homesick feeling to this quiet valley at the foot of the Matterhorn.

There are mountain trips in plenty for the seasoned climber, to the Breithorn (13,685 feet high), the Cima di Jazzi (12,527 feet) the Monte Rosa (15,217 feet), and finally the Matterhorn itself (14,780 feet). For those less hardy there is the Theodule Pass, the Hörnli, the Schwarzsee, the Riffel Alp, and the Gorner Grat. This latter is the most popular of all, and no one who comes to Zermatt fails to make the trip. This is easily done now, for a railroad on the rack and pinion system, the highest mountain railroad in Europe next to the Jungfrau road, mounts almost to the summit of the Grat. It is an interesting trip; we pass over bridges, and viaducts, through tunnels, and forests, and finally come out upon the high upland pastures, which in spring and summer are one mass of the most beautiful wild flowers in the world. Some years ago as we left the train at the highest station, a Frenchman with a kodak in his hand approached me, and asked if I would not take his picture

for him. He had only ten minutes to spare between trains, and wished to carry home a sure piece of evidence that he had climbed the Gorner Grat. I consented; he struck an attitude with the Matterhorn as a background, and I snapped him with his own kodak. I did not ask him his name, but I have a shrewd suspicion that it was Tartarin de Tarascon.

The Gorner Grat, which is 10,290 feet in altitude (4,975 above Zermatt), is a rocky ridge rising from the plateau of the Riffelberg. We are completely surrounded with snow peaks and glaciers; we can count some fifteen or twenty of the latter from the spot where we stand. There is the Monte Rosa to the left, the Twins, the Breithorn, the Matterhorn, the Dent Blanche, the Weisshorn, the Blümlisalp, and many others; while at our very feet flow the mighty rivers of ice that come down from the great valleys between the mountains themselves. Chief among these glaciers is the one named after the Gorner Grat, into which flow a dozen other tributary streams, the Grenz, Schwarze, Breithorn, Unter and Ober Theodule, Furggen and other glaciers; and dominating all is the mighty pyramid of the Matterhorn, rising sheer up into the clear atmosphere with a banner of cloud forever waving from its summit.

It is strange what a hold this famous mountain has taken on the hearts and minds of men in recent years. For it is only recently that it has become famous, long after the Rigi and especially after the Mont Blanc at Chamonix. In olden times there was a pass from Italy to Switzerland, now known as the Theodule Pass, so called from the beloved St. Theodule, Bishop of Sion, in the Valais, who came hither to exorcise the devil and all his followers, who were wont to amuse themselves by throwing rocks from the summits of the Matterhorn into the valleys beneath.

The pass becomes better and better known as the middle ages wore away, and was used by pious pilgrims to the shrines in Switzerland, by soldiers, and above all by smugglers. Three times Ahasuerus, the Wandering Jew,

crossed it at intervals of hundreds of years and cursed it. Legend tells how the first time he made this journey he saw on the Pass a great thriving city, and prophesied that on his second passing by that spot, woods and meadows would be growing on the site of the houses and streets; and that when his sad journeying should bring him up thither for the third time, the woods and the meadows would be gone, and all things covered with ice and snow.

The real discoverers of Zermatt were the men of science bent on studying the phenomena of geology, and of ice and snow in its primitive state; first and greatest of all, De Saussure came, who in 1787 climbed to the summit of Mont Blanc, and who two years after came to the foot of the Matterhorn, which was to become the great rival of Mont Blanc in the eyes of the traveling world. And then as the traveling world began to come, hotels gradually made their appearance; for at first the only lodging and food that travelers could find was due to the hospitality of the parish priest. Today Zermatt is a flourishing town of vast and comfortable hotels, whose existence is largely due to Alexander Seiler, whose name has become a household word for tens of thousands of tourists all over the world.

But his enthusiasm does not surpass, even if it equals, that of an unknown predecessor of his, described by Guido Rey in his beautiful book on the Matterhorn. He was a poor peasant named Minette or Meynet, whose ambition in life was to build a hotel on the summit of the Theodule Pass. And all summer long he labored hard, piling up the stones to form the walls of his future hotel, with no one but his wife to share his labors. They lived in the meantime in a wretched little tent, and when the travelers passed that way, they could refresh themselves with bread and cheese and wine. "And when some traveler showed an interest in him, he poured forth his enthusiasm for the glories of his Pass, and described in glowing terms the wondrous sights he enjoyed up there, and proclaimed aloud that

by building a refuge for those who could not otherwise have viewed those sublime scenes, he had shown himself a benefactor to the human race. And then he would humbly ask for a contribution towards the construction of his house on the snow; it was not, he said, the greed for gain that impelled him, but the wish to make known the beauties of a sunrise on his pass; "Gentlemen," he would say, "I work for humanity."

But it is time for us now to approach a little nearer to the giant attraction at Zermatt, the Matterhorn itself.

For a long time it was considered inaccessible, and the guides who willingly had endangered their lives in other ascents refused to tempt providence by attacking this hopeless task. Yet toward the beginning of the second half of the nineteenth century, men began gradually to be convinced that the task was not hopeless, and efforts were made from time to time to ascend the mountain. Among these men the best known were the Italian Giordano, Professor John Tyndall, and Edward Whymper. Worthy of a place beside them were the two guides Carrel and Michel Croz. The rivalry was especially keen between Tyndall and Whymper, and now one and now the other could reach a higher point. On August 20, 1860, Tyndall reached a height of about 12,000 feet; on July 19, 1862, Whymper climbed a few hundred feet higher, and a week after increased even this gain; while on July 29, of the same year, Tyndall made the record of 13,980 feet. So matters were till the year 1865, when Mr. Whymper resolved to make one final effort to conquer the mountain. Hitherto the ascents had all been made from the Valtournanche with Breuil as a starting point; for the eastern face seemed so steep and smooth as to be absolutely impossible to climb. Mr. Whymper, however, made certain observations on the dip of the strata and on the inclination of the east face, whose steepness he found to be due to the fact that it was usually seen straight in front, while in reality it had an inclination of less than

forty degrees and in many places offered easy climbing, being in fact a sort of a natural staircase.

All these things made him eager to make the attempt from this side. In July, 1865, he came to Breuil to meet Jean Antonio Carrel, with whom he supposed he had an engagement, but who, to Whymper's chagrin, and mortification declared that his word was pledged to the Italian rival of both Whymper and Tyndall, Signor Giordano.

He decided to go to Zermatt to see what arrangements he could make there for a guide, for he was determined to make the effort to climb the mountain by the east face. By good, or rather bad, luck, a young Englishman, Lord Francis Douglas, appeared, from whom Whymper learned that the old Peter Taugwalder had lately been beyond the Hörnli and had reported that he thought an ascent of the Matterhorn was possible upon that side. Whymper then descended to Zermatt, engaged old Peter, and to his great wonder came upon his old guide, Michel Croz, sitting in front of the Monte Rosa Hotel. From him he learned that he was in the employ of an English clergyman, Rev. Charles Hudson, who had come to Zermatt for the same purpose as himself, *i. e.*, to ascend the Matterhorn. He had with him a young man, only nineteen years old, a Mr. Hadow, who had this year for the first time learned the art of mountain climbing but who in spite of his inexperience had shown remarkable aptitude for such work. As it was considered inadvisable for two independent parties to attempt the ascent of the mountain at the same time, a consultation was held, with the result that the two parties united, and agreed to make the attempt together. Thus was formed the little company of heroes, the Conquerors, as Guido Rey calls them, who were to make the first ascent of the hitherto virgin mountain. The party, thus completed, consisted of Mr. Whymper, Lord Francis Douglas, Mr. Hadow, Michel Croz, and old Peter Taugwalder and his son. "So Croz and I became comrades once more," says Mr. Whymper, "and as I threw myself on my bed and tried to

go to sleep, I wondered at the strange series of chances which had first separated us and then brought us together again. I thought of the mistake through which he had accepted the engagement to Mr. B.; of his unwillingness to adopt my route; of his recommendation to transfer our energies to the chain of Mt. Blanc; of the desertion of Carrel; of the arrival of Lord Francis Douglas; and lastly of our accidental meeting at Zermatt. As I pondered over these things I could not help asking, 'What next?' If any one of the links of this fatal chain of circumstances had been omitted, what a different story I should have to tell."

The next morning they started from Zermatt, and before twelve o'clock they had found a good position for the tent at a height of 11,000 feet. "We passed the remaining hours of daylight, some basking in the sunshine, some sketching or collecting, and when the sun went down, giving, as it departed, a glorious promise for the morrow, we returned to the tent to arrange for the night. Long after dusk the cliffs above echoed with our laughter and with the songs of the guides, for we were happy that night in camp, and feared no evil."

We have no time to give in detail the story of the conquest of the Matterhorn, how, after a painful but by no means extraordinarily difficult climb the whole party reached the summit, saw far below them the rival party of Signor Giordano and Carrel; how they enjoyed the unequaled view not only of the Swiss mountains but even those of the Maritime Alps, a hundred and thirty miles away, while 10,000 feet beneath them were the green fields of Zermatt, dotted with chalets, —from which blue smoke rose lazily. "There was every combination that the world can give, and every contrast that the heart could desire. We remained on the summit for one hour.

One crowded hour of glorious life.

It passed away too quickly and we began to prepare for the descent."

What happened next belongs to one of the most famous scenes in all the annals of mountain climbing, for it has something in it that seems to touch the heart with a feeling of deepest pathos and pity; and on account of the profound tragedy of it all, it has enveloped the Matterhorn with solemnity even in the minds of those who love it most.

Just as they were about to tie themselves together with the rope, it was remembered that their names had not been left in a bottle on the summit, and Whymper returned to the summit for this purpose. When he rejoined them and tied himself to the younger Taugwalder, they were just beginning the descent of the difficult part. "Great care was being taken. Only one man was moving at a time; when he was firmly planted, the next advanced, and so on. They had not, however attached the additional rope to rocks, and nothing was said about it. The suggestion was not made for my own sake, and I am not sure that it even occurred to me again. For some little distance we two followed the others, detached from them, and should have continued to do so, had not Lord F. Douglas asked me about 3:00 p. m. to tie on to old Peter, as he feared, he said, that Taugwalder would not be able to hold his ground if a slip occurred. A few minutes later a sharp-eyed lad ran into the Monte Rosa Hotel to Seiler, the proprietor, saying he had seen an avalanche fall from the summit of the Matterhorn onto the Matterhorngletscher. The boy was reproved for telling idle stories; he was right, however, and this was what he saw. Michel Croz had laid aside his axe, and in order to give Mr. Hadow greater security was absolutely taking hold of his legs and putting his feet, one by one, into their proper positions. As far as I know no one was actually descending. I cannot speak with certainty, because the two leading men were partially hidden from my sight by an intervening mass of rock, but it is my belief from the movements of their shoulders, that Croz, having done as I have said, was in the act of turning round to go down a step or two himself. At this moment Mr. Hadow slipped, fell

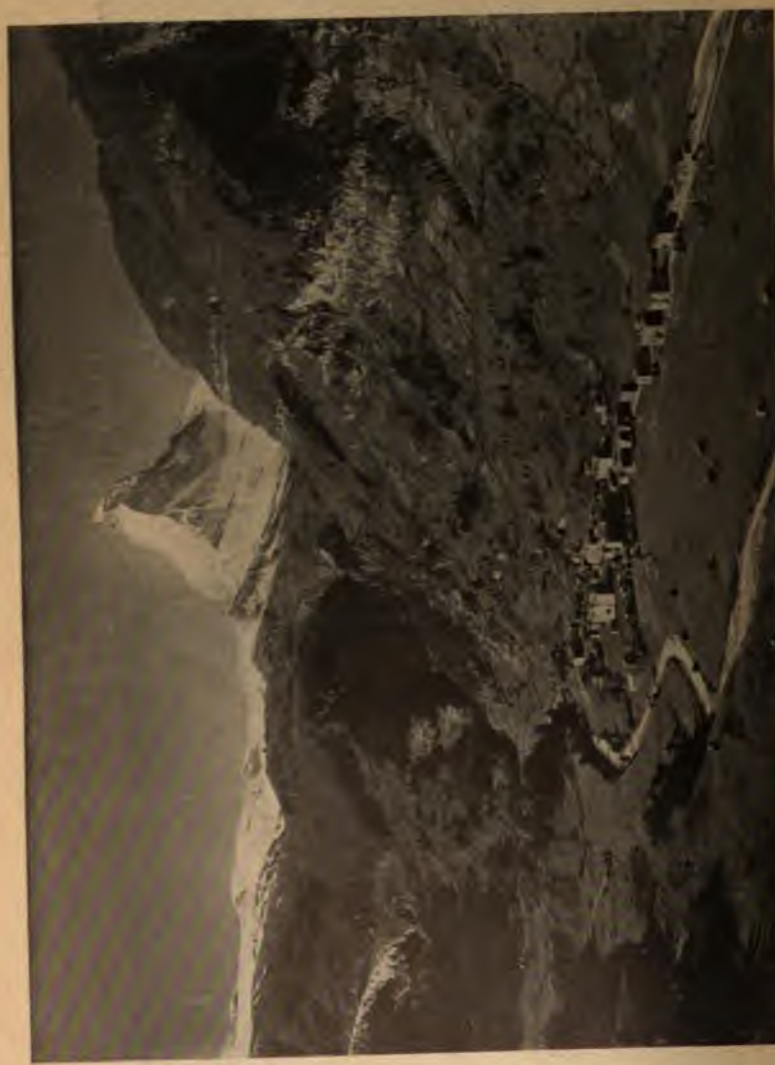
against Croz and knocked him over. I heard one startled exclamation from Croz, then saw him and Mr. Hadow flying downward; in another moment Hudson was dragged from his steps and Lord Douglas immediately after him. All this was the work of a moment. Immediately we heard Croz's exclamation, old Peter and I planted ourselves as firmly as the rocks would permit; the rope was taut between us, and the jerk came on us both as on one man. We held, but the rope broke midway between Taugwalder and Lord Francis Douglas. For a few seconds we saw our unfortunate companions sliding downwards on their backs, and spreading out their hands, endeavoring to save themselves. They passed from our sight uninjured, disappeared one by one, and fell from precipice to precipice on to the Matterhorngletscher below, a distance of nearly four thousand feet in height. From the moment the rope broke it was impossible to help them."

Mr. Whymper's description of what followed is full of dramatic interest; how all three of those who had been saved were paralyzed with terror; how they saw a strange phenomenon of two crosses formed by the rising mists, which the superstitious minds of the Taugwalders connected with the accident; how they finally arrived at the hotel, where Seiler met Whymper at the door, and how this Napoleon of Swiss hotel-keepers burst into tears.

This is the tragedy of the Matterhorn, and this is how the virgin mountain avenged herself upon the rash individuals who dared to accomplish what had long been declared to be impossible. But although it saddened all minds, this accident only seemed to increase the attraction exerted by the mountain.

Men came and made the same ascent, Tyndall (in 1868), Carrel and Giordano and others. In 1871, a lady, a Miss Walker, climbed it; Lord Wentworth passed the night on the summit, spending in all eighteen hours there; others made the ascent on their honeymoon; one day in 1892 the top was seen to be crowded by at least twenty-three people,

The Matterhorn.



Zermatt and the Matterhorn—Canton du Valais.

Crevasse and Ice Path—Rhone Glacier.

with their numerous guides; and in 1902, the guides of Valtournanche carried a cross to the summit. where a priest, fitly enough the Abbé Carrel, the grand-nephew of the famous guide, said mass. Many other accidents have occurred. Up to 1900 there were six victims, besides those of the first disaster, on the Zermatt slope, and two on the Breuil slope.

Church at Zermatt—Matterhorn in Distance.

Of all the lovers of the Matterhorn, none is so deeply inspired with enthusiasm as Guido Rey, from whose beautiful book a number of the above details have been taken. He was a boy ten years old when he read Mr. Whymper's "Scrambles Among the Alps," and inspired by that classic book of travel he devoted his life to the service and worship of the mountain. He studied its history, he climbed it himself many times, and has made it still more famous and more beloved by his book, in which he pours forth his admiration and his love.

Village of Reuti.

Some of his experiences are worthy a place beside those described by Whymper himself. Take, for instance, that descent of the great mountain in the night-time, in the midst of darkness and cold so intense that the hands and fingers lost all feeling.

"I slid down, I crept along at one time on my back, at another with my face to the rocks; I hugged the mountain in the attempt to adapt my body to its slope; one moment I would go lightly in order not to put too much weight on a doubtful hold, the next I

would let myself go with my whole weight, having out of the corner of my eye seen a place on which to put my feet. At times, at the bottom of a difficult bit, where the rope came to an end, my legs were too short to reach any hold and kicked about in space and explored the rock; my bended knees did the work of my feet, my elbows planted in the hold instead of my hands, until I found some Heaven-sent support, and then, arching my back and supporting myself with the back of my neck, at last reached a place where I could stand in safety."

Diligence in the Rhone Valley.

The darkness gradually increased, and the mountain's outlines became indistinct; at times a wreath of mist enveloped them as in a gray veil. At the Enjambée the darkness was complete; of the wonderful precipice below they saw nothing at all. And so they descended, step by step, growing ever more doubtful of a happy issue, hastening where they could, spurred on by their anxiety.

"That headlong climb created for me a Matterhorn as yet unknown to me,—a Matterhorn invisible, but tangible in its shape in the smallest inequalities of its surface and hands and feet groped for these and recognized them by the same touch, and found the holds as if all my visual faculties were collected, by a phenomenal transfer of the senses, in my extremities."

They entered the Vallon des Glaçons; that desolate couloir, which is dark even in the daytime, was as black as a tomb. They groped their way across the Mauvais Pass, Heaven alone knows how; but as Rey brought his head against it with a fearful blow, they decided to light the lanterns, one at either end of the party. Time was required for

Chalet in Reuti.

The Wetterhorn—Grindelwald.

Bellaggio—Lake Como, Italy.

this, because a breeze was blowing and the matches were damp, but at last the candle burned with a tiny yellow flame.

"The scene changed; I once more saw by my side Daniel whom I had not seen for more than an hour. Lighted up as he was from head to foot, his head wrapped in a handkerchief tied under his chin, he seemed to me a strange apparition, a man I did not know. Our range of vision was limited to a very few yards around us; I could see that only a few steps from me the rocks fell away into a dark abyss.

"But my strange guide was already on the move, rapidly descending into the chasm with his lantern swinging to and fro, as he held it in his hand. I followed close behind him, seeking the benefit of the light, like a moth. From behind I felt a violent jerk at the rope and heard an oath; I turned round and out of the tail of my eye saw the other lantern waving fantastically among the dark crags, together with other strange human forms. If the shepherds of Breuil had seen these tiny lights wandering along the arête they would have thought them to be restless spirits in torment; but at that hour the shepherds were peacefully sleeping on their couches of hay."

And so they made their way down and down, without rest. In the shelter of the couloir, they had not felt the cold, but when they had turned the rocks of the Tower, and regained the arête they were suddenly chilled through and through; "the very recesses of my pockets were frozen."

"But Daniel flees onward like a spectre and I after him. I heard the sound of the lantern, striking against his axe, or against the rocks; the lantern shot downwards, then rose again, spread light and shade about it, and its leaps to and fro suggested to me what gymnastic feats Daniel was performing. The spectre and the light disappeared suddenly, to become visible again further on; the man's dark, lean profile stood out in an aureole of light. I felt the rope pulling me from below, and I plunged downwards. It was a real race down the precipice. But the desperate descent was ended; the wandering light had stopped. I came up to it and my hand touched a dark wall; it was a wooden one. Oh! how pleasant was the touch of smooth wood after so much rough rock! a little door opened to our push; I found myself in the hut. We had descended the Matterhorn in less than three hours."

But now we must tear ourselves away from Zermatt and the Matterhorn, perhaps the most fascinating of all Alpine centers. We must descend to the Rhone Valley, and visit the other points of interest which remain for us. I cannot close this chapter, however, without quoting once more from Guido Rey's book, this time a passage in which

he describes with a poet's feeling the strange, uplifting charm of the high mountains, mingled with the no less profound charm of the nobler and more beautiful phases of humanity.

They had come back from one of their long and arduous trips, the Herren had gone to the drawing-room of the hotel, the guides to their dark low room on the ground floor. Two young ladies had asked to be allowed to visit the guides, in their quarters. And there in the dim obscurity, full of smoke, lighted only by a small lamp, sat the rude, impassive guides with their slouch hats pulled down over their rugged faces. And then they began to sing the songs of Savoy and the Valais,

"Montagnes de cette vallée
Vous êtes mes amours;
Cabanes fortunees
Ou j'ai recu le jour."

(Ye mountains of this valley, you are my love; happy cabins, where first I saw the light of day.)

"and the chorus swelled and rose to the low, vaulted ceiling and filled the narrow room with deafening waves of sound; the whole was a medley of strange discords, high trills and deep bass notes which issued from the men's powerful chests like the music of church organs. They sang with the delighted fervor of great boys:

"Rien n'est si beau que ma patrie;
Rien n'est si doux que mon amie."

(Nothing so fair as my native land,
Nothing so sweet as the girl I love.)

"We laughed and jested because we felt safe, but the name of the Matterhorn kept returning to our thoughts and our lips, for outside the house beyond the narrow walls of the room, amid the darkness of the night, towered the huge, dark pyramid. We could not see it, but we were all aware of its presence because its influence pervaded our hearts, and we felt as if we were still ascending the sharp ridge. . . . The Matterhorn was invisible, yet ever present as God Himself.

"I remember that one of the songs pleased us so much that we repeated it three or four times, and the last time, when we came to the final refrain, we heard two pure, silvery voices rising through the smoke and joining the deep tones of the guides. They belonged

to the two girls, who, carried away by the mountain melody, had joined us in our song. I glanced at the guides; they had not even turned their heads towards the quarter whence those sweet notes came; they continued singing the refrain to the end, but instinctively lowered their voices; but when the verse was ended, they all rose to their feet, and greeted the singers with a burst of applause which resounded through the room that their presence had brightened.

"Music and the Matterhorn had filled our minds with peace. We went out into the open air by the small door which leads on to the level space in front of the hotel. In the perfect calm of the Alpine night the summit of the great mountain stood out in relief against the clear sky, and it seemed to me as if at that hour the light of the stars fell with a softer radiance upon the dark and rugged Matterhorn."

VII. Chamonix and its Environs

MANY years before Zermatt or even Grindelwald and Lauterbrunnen were frequented by tourists, Chamonix had become known. In 1741 two English travelers, Pococke and Wyndham, armed to the teeth as if about to storm a robber's den, had pentrated into the valley. In 1760 Saussure visited Chamonix and in 1787 climbed Mont Blanc. Since then many of the greatest literary artists of Europe have given expression to the feeling aroused within them in the presence of the giant mountain. Goethe, Victor Hugo, Byron, Shelley, Wordsworth, Coleridge and a long list of lesser luminaries have found the peace and joy of elevated thoughts in this valley.

Shelley's atheism found no shock in these evidences of God's power, and he foolishly wrote in the traveler's register at Montanvert the following words in Greek, "I am a philanthropist, a democrat and an atheist." A later comer added to these the word "fool;" and Byron visiting Montanvert afterwards erased both Shelley's "atheist" and his successor's "fool."

The feelings experienced by all other poets, however, who have visited this charming valley, are those of religious awe. Perhaps no one has expressed these sentiments more impressively than Coleridge in his "Hymn before Sunrise in the Vale of Chamonix:"

> "Who made you glorious as the gates of heaven
> Beneath the keen full moon? Who bade the sun
> Clothe you with rainbows? Who with living flowers
> Of loveliest blue, spread garlands at your feet?
> God! let the torrent like a shout of nations,
> Answer! and let the ice-plains echo, God!"

There are a number of ways of reaching Chamonix, from the Valley of the Rhone by way of Martigny and the Tête Noire, or Vernayaz and Salvan, or from Geneva by way of Sallanches or Sixt. Most of these journeys can now be taken by railroad, but when I first visited Chamonix the trip from either side had to be done on foot or by dili-

gence. I have made this journey a number of times, from Martigny, Vernayaz, and Geneva, but the pleasantest mode of travel I have found to be by bicycle. Chamonix is some fifty miles away from Geneva, and some two thousand feet higher in altitude. It is hard going, but the return is one continual coasting for nearly the whole distance, and one feels something of the pleasure the old German barbarians must have felt, when, invading Italy, they are said to have slid down the snowy slopes of the Alps on their shields. But perhaps the pleasantest of all my visits to Chamonix was the trip I took with a party of Genevese students and others. We did not enter the great hotels of the town itself, but went on to Argentières, at the foot of the glacier of that name, and there in the darkness of the late night, when the whole village was fast asleep and the silence was broken only by the barking of dogs, we roused the proprietor of a little country inn and put up for the night. It is in such unconventional excursions as this, on foot, with a group of natives, that we learn to know the real life of the country.

Chamonix is a very beautiful valley, far more so than Zermatt, whose chief charm lies in its proximity to the Matterhorn. So, too, Chamonix has its Mt. Blanc but does not need it,—for it has beauty enough of its own. The green fields, the swift running waters of the Arve, the huge rivers of ice that flow down into the valleys, and the everlasting snows on the summit of Mt. Blanc itself, have made Chamonix from the very beginning one of the most popular of all mountain resorts. In the busy season the hotels are full, the streets are crowded with tourists of all nations, with their Baedekers in their hands, gazing idly at the distant mountains, or setting off at a brisk pace for the various points of interest, of which there are many.

The most famous of all these trips, and the one which every visitor must make it if he does nothing else, is that to the Montanvert, a height on the east side of the valley, some three thousand feet above Chamonix, whence one has a strik-

ing view of the great glacier known as the Mer de Glace. This most famous of all Swiss glaciers has its rise among the highest basins of the Mt. Blanc chain, forms itself in three branches and flows into the valley in an enormous ice-cataract four and a half miles long and from one-half to one and a quarter miles broad. From Montanvert the Mer de Glace can be traversed without danger or much difficulty, and the impressions made upon us by that wilderness of icy crags, of deep crevasses, of little trickling streams of water formed by the melting ice, is one that is not easily forgotten. Crossing to the other side we ascend over the débris of the right lateral moraine to the top, then by the Mauvais Pas, the only part fraught with any possible danger, to the Chapeau, a projecting rock, which though lower than the Montanvert gives a fine view of the valley of Chamonix, and the lower part of the Mer de Glace, known as the Glacier des Bois.

This trip is usually enough for one day, while another day can be profitably spent in visiting the Brévent and the Flégère, on the opposite side of the valley. I remember, however, having made both these trips in one day, saving in every point on the time given by Baedeker as necessary. Hurrying over the Mer de Glace, down the Mauvais Pas, across the valley, up the sides of the Flégère, a buttress of one of the peaks of the Aiguilles Rouges, to its top (6,158 feet) I was rewarded by a panoramic view embracing the whole of the Mt. Blanc chain, with the Mer de Glace, and the Glacier des Bossons at their feet, and the picturesque village of Chamonix in the foreground.

From the Flégère I hurried on again over the Route de Planpraz, which winds along in full view of the Mt. Blanc range, and finally brings us to the Brévent (8,285 feet in height), where I enjoyed for a brief space a still more magnificent view, especially of Mt. Blanc itself, while to the left I could catch a glimpse of some of the highest peaks of the Bernese mountains.

The easiest of all excursions from Chamonix, and by no means the least interesting, is the Glacier des Bossons,

which is more attractive than the Mer de Glace, though not so large or sublime. The electric railroad will take us there in ten minutes. We can visit the inevitable ice-grotto, hewn into the glacier for a distance of one hundred and fifty feet; can cross the glacier and so return to Chamonix.

For the experienced mountain climber Chamonix is the starting point for many interesting trips, the easiest and most enjoyable of which is the so-called Tour of Mt. Blanc; that is by one of the passes over the Mt. Blanc chain, to Courmayeur, at the head of the Aosta Valley, which bears to the Italian tourist world some such relation as Chamonix does to the rest of Europe. From here the circuit can be completed by crossing the great St. Bernard to Martigny and thence to Chamonix again.

While Mt. Blanc is not so indispensable to Chamonix as the Matterhorn to Zermatt, yet after all it too dominates the whole landscape. It is the highest mountain in Europe (15,782 feet) and its summit is always covered with snow. The story of its different ascents, though interesting, has not the same degree of dramatic interest as that of the Matterhorn. It was first ascended in 1786 by the guide Jacques Balmat, and by a Dr. Paccard in the same year. In 1761, the great Swiss scientist, De Saussure, had made known among the parishes of the valley of Chamonix that he would give a considerable reward to anyone who would find a practicable route to the summit of Mt. Blanc; and he further offered to pay by the day those who should make fruitless attempts to discover such a route. During the twenty years that followed, more or less attempts were made, but it was not till 1786 that a young guide, Jacques Balmat, who had been born a year after De Saussure made his offer, succeeded in climbing the mountain and gaining the reward. We have spent so much time in describing the first ascent of the Matterhorn that it would perhaps be out of place to describe in detail this first ascent of Mt. Blanc. Interesting though the story is, as told by the son of Balmat, it lacks the tragic interest, the dramatic details, and the literary charm

which have made Mr. Whymper's description a veritable classic. It can be read in De Saussure's "Voyage dans les Alpes," and in Zürcher and Margollé's "Ascensions célèbres." Since then the ascent has been made many times, and in 1893, an observatory was built by Dr. Janssen, which rests entirely on the snow, as borings failed to find the rock even at a depth of seventy-five feet.

VIII. Lake Geneva: Its Scenery and Its Literary and Historical Memories.

LONG before the rest of Switzerland had become known to the outside world as a place of beauty and a joy forever, the city of Geneva was famous. This "bird's nest of a place" as Ruskin calls it had been for centuries the center of religious and social thought in Europe. It was only toward the end of the eighteenth century, however, that the natural beauty of Lake Geneva began to attract visitors. The labors and the writings of Saussure, the discovery of Chamonix, the ascent of Mont Blanc, prepared the way. But it was Rousseau who made the shores of Lake Geneva and the surrounding country the most popular "touristen-punkt" in Europe. It was he who gave the first impulse to modern mountain worship. With him the love of nature was deep and personal, not merely scientific or intellectual. In his loneliness and exile, tormented by morbid fancies and his half-insane suspicion of all men, he found comfort, peace, and health in the bosom of nature. He especially loved wild and gloomy scenes, and tells us in his "Confessions" that he required "torrents, rocks, dark forest, mountains, and precipices." Again in the "Nouvelle Héloise," speaking of the scenery of the Valais, he says, "It is a general impression which all men experience though all do not observe it, that in the high mountain where the air is pure and clear, the respiration is freer, the body is

Chamonix—Mont Blanc.

Mont Blanc—View from the Grand Mulets.

Mer de Glace—Chain of Mont Blanc.

Chamonix—The Arve and Mont Blanc.

Chamonix with Mont Blanc.

Glacier des Bois and Valley of Chamonix.

lighter, and the soul is more serene." Yet it would be a mistake to attribute to Rousseau the sentiments of Wordsworth and Ruskin in regard to the higher mountain regions of Switzerland. He was like the eighteenth century in being devoid of the capacity for feeling awe. "The Alpine waste," says Mr. Morley, "which throws your puniest modern into rapture, had no attraction for him. . . . The humble heights of the Jura and the lovely points of the valley of Chambéry sufficed to give him all the pleasure of which he was capable."

Most of the landscapes he describes are those around Lake Geneva, Clarens, Vevey, Meillerie, and the valley of the Rhone. His description of the retreat at Meillerie, given in the "Nouvelle Héloise," was especially famous, and attracted his devotees in large numbers. When Goethe visited Vevey in 1779, "he could not restrain his tears when he saw across the lake Meillerie and had before him all the place which the immortal Rousseau had peopled with living forms."

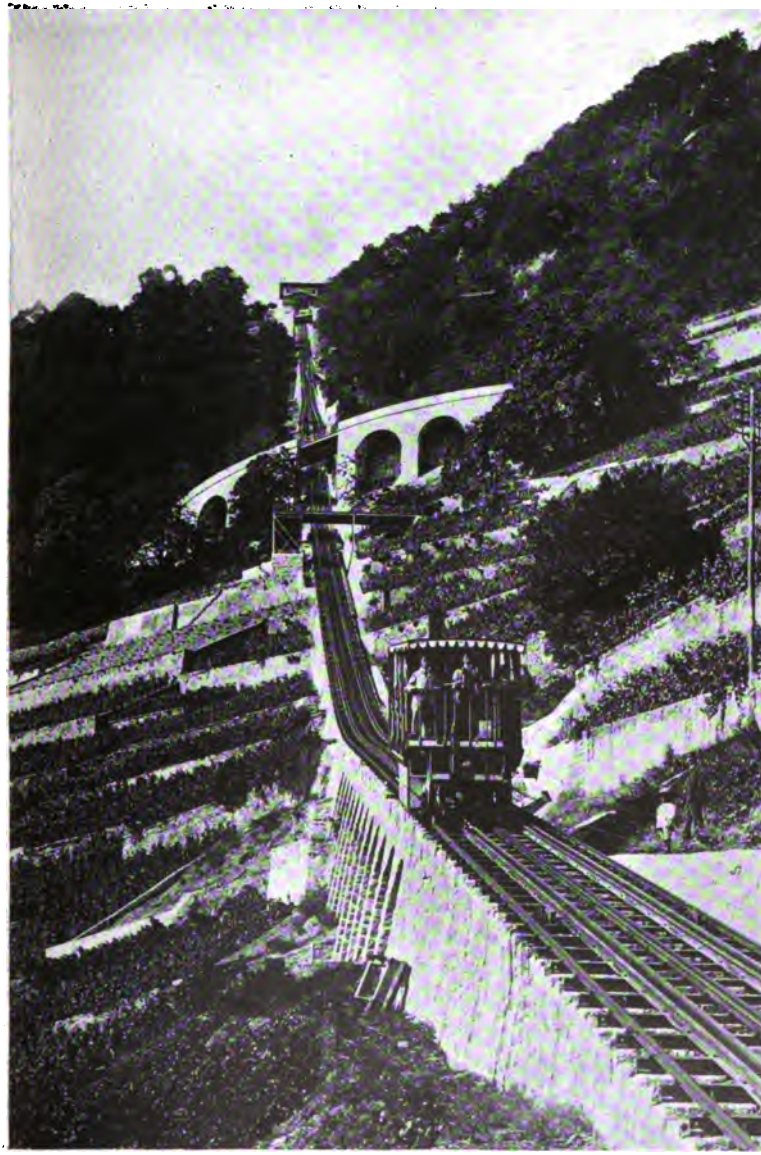
But besides the all-pervading presence of Rousseau, almost every town on, or near Lake Geneva is associated more or less with some other great name,—Geneva with

Valley of the Tête Noire—Chamonix.

Calvin, Lausanne with Gibbon, Coppet with Madame de Stäel, St. Cergue with Lamartine, and Ferney with Voltaire. Most interesting of all, however, for English speaking people are the memories that cluster about the names of Byron and Shelley. The former after his separation from Lady Byron, in 1816, sailed up the Rhine to Bâle, thence to Bern, Lausanne, and Geneva, marking his route, as he went, by those wonderful stanzas of "Childe Harold," which are among the noblest "poems of places" ever written. On arriving at Geneva he stopped at the hotel in Sècheron just outside of the town on the west shore of the lake. Here he became acquainted with Shelley, his wife, and Clara Clermont, a relative of the latter. The two great but eccentric poets became at once fast friends; both were extremely fond of boating, and every evening, accompanied by the ladies, they sailed on the lake. When Shelley, finding the life at the hotel too dear, left Sècheron and took a villa on the eastern shore of the lake, Byron would sail across every evening, till he too came to live on the same side, in the Villa Diodati, once owned by the well known Genevese theologian of that name, who had here been honored by a visit from Milton. The life of the two poets

Ascent of Mont Blanc—Crossing a Crevasse.

Place d'Eglise and Villagers, Chamonix.



Territet Railway, Montreux—Lake Geneva.

Vevey—Lake Leman (Geneva).

at this time was a strange mingling of idleness and work, of "high thinking and low living." They did not go into society, but spent the time in reading, writing, boating and long conversations, often prolonged far into the night. It is doubtful if society would have received them, even if they had manifested any desire for it, instead of avoiding systematically as they did all intercourse with the world outside of their own little group. The most incredible stories, says Byron, were told concerning him; he was watched from the other side of the lake through telescopes; on one occasion in the house of Madame de Stäel, an old lady swooned when he entered the room.

The most interesting episode of the sojourn of Byron and Shelley in Geneva was the circumnavigation of the lake in the month of June. Both became enthusiastic admirers of Rousseau, whose spirit seems to hover over every part of the lake. The great sentimentalist, accompanied by his

The Bridge of Mont Blanc, View from the Hotel des Bergues—Geneva.

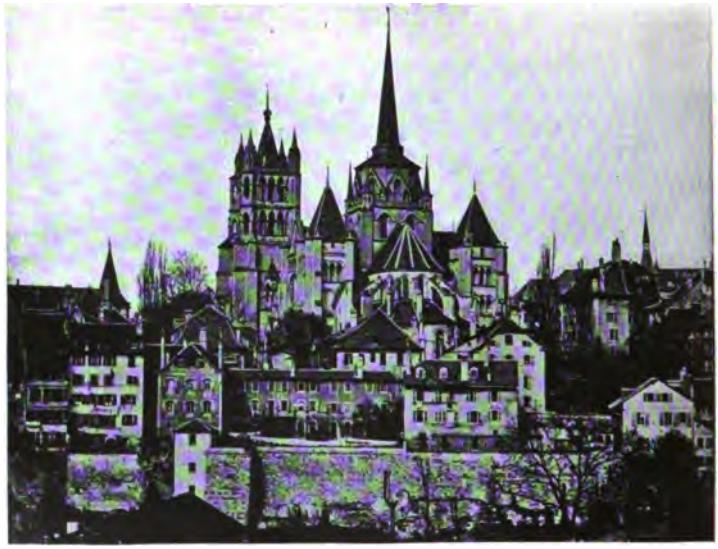
Thérèse and several others, had formerly made this same voyage. With the "Nouvelle Héloise" in their hands, Byron and Shelley visited Meillerie, Clarens, Vevey, and Chillon. Clarens especially moved them; Shelley with difficulty kept from tears, and Byron wrote some of his tenderest lines:

"Clarens! sweet Clarens, birth-place of deep love!
Thine air is the young breath of passionate thought:
Thy trees take root in love; the snows above
The very glaciers have his color caught."

Like St. Preux and Madame Wolmar, Shelley and Byron were caught in a storm near Meillerie, and for a time it looked as if they were doomed to destruction; they finally succeeded, however, in reaching St. Gingolph. They spent the evening after the storm reading the letters of St. Preux to Julie. "It would have been very classical to have been lost there," said Byron afterward to Medwin, "but not very agreeable." At Ouchy, where they were detained

View of Montreux, Taken from Territit—Lake Leman (Geneva).

Lake Geneva—The Castle of Chillon and la Dent du Midi.



The Cathedral—Lausanne.

two days by the rain Byron wrote the "Prisoner of Chillon" and probably the stanzas on Rousseau and Clarens in the third canto of "Childe Harold."

There is no pleasanter place for a long residence than Geneva itself, so clean, so bright, so gay, and cheerful, with its university, and the Summer School for foreigners desirous of learning French; with its quaint old medieval streets, its newer boulevards, its pleasant and attractive suburbs, its walks and promenades on both sides of the lake, the innumerable pleasure excursions one can take by railroad, tramway, steamboat, carriage, bicycle, or on foot.

As I write these words, my mind goes back pleasantly to the numerous sojourns I have made in this delightful city, the "Petit Paris" as its citizens love to hear it called. I remember the various excursions I made in company with a group of young Genevese, and other friends. At one time it was to the steep slopes of the Salève, the wall-like moun-

tain just back of the city. At another, I went with an American friend on bicycle to the charming little Lake Annecy, just over the frontier of France. This trip almost proved to be my last, for having only learned to ride a bicycle a short time before, the machine ran away with me and I raced down the slope of a long hill, to the astonishment of the peasants, with lightning like rapidity, and with imminent danger to my own life. Again a party of us left Geneva in the morning, went as far as Nyon, then walked up to the little village of St. Cergue in a green valley at the base of the Dôle, where Lamartine went to escape military service under Napoleon. Here we had a splendid view of Lake Geneva and the Mont Blanc; but found some difficulty in getting a place to sleep, for the present hotels and pensions were not then in existence. We finally found accommodations in the town hall, and rising early in the morning, climbed to the summit of the Dôle, the highest peak of the Swiss Jura. Here we passed a delightful hour or two, made a hearty lunch, gazed at the extensive and picturesque view, with the beautiful Lake Geneva at our feet,

The Dungeon in the Castle of Chillon.

and the majestic Mt. Blanc and its mantle of everlasting snow in the distance.

Instead of returning by the same route, we walked along the summit of the Jura until we arrived at the Col de la Faucille, where before the days of the railroad, travelers from France usually made their entrance into Switzerland. It was by this road that Ruskin came to Geneva in 1835, and he describes the beautiful view in his customary enthusiastic manner. The carriage road crossed the Jura by the Col de la Faucille, "where the chain opens suddenly, and a sweep of the road, traversed in five minutes at a trot, opens the whole of Lake Geneva and the chain of the Alps along a hundred miles of horizon." "The Col de la Faucille," says Ruskin, "on that day of 1835 opened to me in distinct vision the Holy Land of my future work, and true home in this world. My eyes had been opened and my heart with them, to see and possess royally such a kingdom! Far as the eye could reach, that land and its moving or pausing waters; Arve and his gates of Cluse, and his glacier fountains; Rhone and the infinitude of his sapphire lake, his peace beneath the narcissus meads of Vevey, his cruelty beneath the promontories of Sierre. And all that rose against and melted into the sky, of mountain and mountain-snow; and all that living plain, burning with human gladness, studded with white homes, a milky way of star dwellings cast across the sunlit blue."

Old Chalet at Langnau.

Another delightful trip that stands out in my memory is that around the lake on a bicycle. With an American friend, now a professor in one of our largest universities,

I started out to circle both the shores of Lake Geneva. As the lake is forty-five miles in length, and in its widest part upwards of eight and a half miles broad, we had to take several days to accomplish the journey. But it was a most delightful one. We skirted first the southern shore, which from the little stream named Hermance on, belongs to France. We passed through Thonon-les-Bains, Evian-les-Bains, a fashionable resort frequented chiefly by the French of the upper classes; by St. Gingolph, which belongs half to the canton of the Valais: Bouveret, at the southeast end of the lake, and thence to Villeneuve, a small town dating back to Roman times, situated in the east bay of the lake, and a mile and a half from Chillon.

One of the best known places in Switzerland is the Castle of Chillon. It is famous for its beautiful location, and the view it affords "across the glimmering lake, and the depth profound of the Valais;" it is also interesting from an historical point of view, for it is here that was imprisoned the original of Byron's Prisoner of Chillon, François de Bonivard, born at Seyssel in 1496. Being an ardent republican, he espoused the cause of the Genevese against the Duke of Savoy, who was seeking to assert his seignorial rights against Geneva. In 1519, on the entrance of the Duke into Geneva, Bonivard was arrested and imprisoned for two years at Grolée. He was released, but again in 1530, fell once more into the hands of the Duke of Savoy, and was imprisoned in the Castle of Chillon until 1536, when he was liberated by the forces of the Bernese and Genevese. On his return to Geneva, he was highly honored and endowed with a pension. He died about 1570.

It has been proved, however, that Byron was entirely ignorant of the story of Bonivard; and his prisoner, though he bears an historic name, nevertheless is a poetic fiction; yet nothing envelops the Castle of Chillon with a more puissant charm than the lines of Byron, who bears the same relation to the Lake of Geneva that Schiller does to that of Lucerne.

"Chillon! thy prison is a holy place,
And thy sad floor an altar, for 'twas trod,
Until his very steps have left a trace,
Worn, as if the cold pavement were a sod,
By Bonivard! May none those marks efface,
For they appeal from tyranny to God."

The journey back to Geneva by the north shore is far more interesting, and consequently takes more time than by the south shore. The difference in the character of the land and the people between the two is very striking; the southern or French shore being for the most part occupied by poor and wretched villages inhabited by unhappy looking peasants; while the Swiss shore is one constant succession of pleasant towns and villages, splendid hotels, country houses and villas, groves and gardens, and promenades along the shore. There is Montreux, which consists of a number of villages scattered on the hillside or on the lake; Clarens, Territet, Veytaux, and others, the central point being Montreux-Vernex where are the railroad station and steamboat pier. Then there is Vevey, next in importance to Lausanne, the scene of Rousseau's "Nouvelle Héloise," and possessing a little church in which are the remains of the regicides Ludlow and Broughton. Both Vevey and the various constituent elements of Montreux are among the most popular resorts in Switzerland, not only as a summer, but also as a winter residence. A popular feature is the so-called "Grape Cure," which begins at the end of September and lasts a month. On account of all this we are not surprised at the extraordinary number of good hotels and pensions which crowd the shore and hills of this part of the lake. Past these pleasant towns and villages we go, through the picturesquely situated city of Lausanne, through Morges, with its fine view of Mt. Blanc, through Rolle, and Nyon, and Coppet, made famous by Madame de Stäel, until we come to the charming villas, and rich vegetation which adorn the environs of Geneva, reaching finally the city itself.

Another trip that the traveler cannot fail to take is to Ferney, the château just over the frontiers, in which Vol-

taire lived after he came back from Prussia in 1758 and which for the next twenty years became the center of the literary, religious and philosophical movements of France. Here blessed with a competence which relieved him from all pecuniary anxieties, surrounded by the admiration,—nay by the adoration,—of all Europe, his mental powers not affected by his growing age, Voltaire began one of the most fruitful epochs of his life, at an age when most men think of retiring from all active labor. With an astounding ability for work, versatility and energy, he poured forth writings of all sorts, books and pamphlets, letters and essays, prose and poetry. His works were eagerly sought for and read by all Europe, bourgeois and noble, and even by Frederic II, Empress Catherine of Russia, and the Kings of Denmark, Poland, and Sweden. "He had founded in Europe," it was said of him, "a league of which he was the soul, and of which the war-cry was reason and tolerance." Only once did he leave this world-famous château; that was in 1778, when he went to Paris, to enjoy the ovation which was prepared for him there and where overcome by the excitement, he died May 30, 1778, at the age of eighty-four years.

We can still see today the church he built for the people of the village he founded, with the inscription "Deo erexit Voltaire" (built for God by Voltaire). And in the château many memorials of the great writer himself, while from the garden terrace we can enjoy the same beautiful view over Lake Geneva that he enjoyed as he sat there day after day one hundred and fifty years ago.

A number of times as I had passed by rail from Bern to Lausanne I had admired the comfort and beauty of the fine old farm-houses which give such a prosperous look to that part of the country, and I had often wished I might spend some time there on one of these farms. At last one June, my wishes were gratified, and for five weeks I lived the life of the French peasant of the Canton de Vaud. Our farm was about one hour's walk from Lausanne, high on the hill, and comprised about one hundred acres of roll-

ing land, meadows and fields of grain. On clear days we could see the whole extent of the lake, with the Salève in the distance behind Geneva, and on the left the Rhone Valley, with the snowy peaks of the Grand Combin in the background. Across the blue waters of the lake, which lay at our feet, was Meillerie rendered so famous by Rousseau, and over one of its shoulders peeped Mt. Blanc. This was the view which we had, when we ate our meals (as we often did) outside, beneath a spreading linden tree, where "we ate and drank and saw God also." The beauty of nature, however, is not what attracted me most at the farm, but the character of the people. It is indeed worthy of note. The word "peasant" has acquired a pejorative signification for most Americans, and the comic illustrations of the German *bauer* in such papers as the *Fliegende Blätter,* or the descriptions of the French peasants in Zola's "La Terre," certainly do not tend to win our respect for the tiller of the soil in Europe. Let the following facts serve to counteract this evil notion. The Swiss farmer, at any rate, is equal to the similar class in our own country.

The farm at Penau was owned by the widow of a Bernese peasant, but she herself was of old Vaudois stock. She was perhaps between fifty and sixty years of age, tall, straight, with a look of dignity, refinement, strength and command in all her bearing. Nor did her looks belie her. This woman who worked from 4 a. m. till 10 p. m., nearly every day, had yet found time for reading many good books. She was the personal friend of the late Urban Oliver whose stories of Swiss peasant life have made him deservedly popular and beloved. In the general sitting room of the old white farmhouse, built in typical Vaudois style, the ornaments were largely of a religious nature. Mottoes such as "Moi et ma maison nous servirons l'Eternel" (As for me and my house we will serve the Eternal), hang upon the wall. The books are all either of an agricultural or religious nature. In these days when American goods seem to be overflowing Europe, it may be of interest to note that

even American religious books are very popular in Switzerland. Here in our farmhouse we found translations of Sheldon's "In His Steps" and of the "Life and Letters of Elizabeth Prentiss." Our landlady had two grown sons, both of whom worked on the farm, although one was lieutenant in the army and the other was president of the cantonal Y. M. C. A. Both were married and lived at home. A more harmonious family I never saw; all the farming operations went on smoothly without a hitch and everyone deeply enjoyed the life of labor, hard as it was. No more idyllic picture had I ever seen than when on a summer evening, as the sun was setting, we all went out to the fields, children as well as men and women, to rake hay. The rays of the setting sun flushed with rosy light the fields, the hills and valleys, the broad surface of the lake, and the distant snow-peaks of the Grand Combin. And when the work was done, the wagon started on its way to the great barn, the young men walking beside it whistling, while the old lady and her daughter-in-law moved homeward with their rakes thrown across their shoulders. As I looked on this scene involuntarily the lines of Horace came to my mind:

"Happy the man in busy schemes unskilled,
Who living simply like our sires of old,
Tills the few acres which his father tilled,
Vexed by no thoughts of usury or gold."

One of the pleasantest features about traveling is the people we meet, and the friends we make. Here at Penau came during the summer some very interesting people. There was a lady and her children from Paris, where her husband was a professor; and at the same time her mother, from Aix, in the Rhone Valley, a charming, refined, thoroughly religious old lady. She was the widow of a French-Swiss pastor; and one day when I expressed my surprise at finding a translation of the work of Mrs. Prentiss in this out-of-the-way place, she said, with a pleasant smile: "Ce sont nos amis, Monsieur" (they are our friends), and it turned

out that it was to her home that Mrs. Prentiss went with her husband to seek health and strength for the latter as she relates in her life and letters. I can still hear the sweet, pleasant voice of this charming old lady, as I came to take her hand and say farewell to her, "Dieu vous bénisse, Monsieur" (May God bless you).

But by far the most interesting of all people we met at Penau was an old Waldensian pastor, who for fifty years had filled the humble but useful office of pastor to the people of the mountain valleys in northern Italy; preaching on Sundays in the little chapel to an audience which came from far and near to hear the words of the gospel; making his pastoral calls in valley and on mountain side. He was a true picture of the faithful pastor described by Goldsmith in his "Deserted Village:"

"At church with meek and unaffected grace,
His looks adorned the venerable place,
The service past, around the pious man,
With ready zeal, each honest rustic ran;
E'en children followed with endearing wile,
And plucked his gown, to share the good man's smile;
His ready smile a parent's warmth expressed,
Their welfare pleased him, and their cares distressed;
To them his heart, his love, his griefs were given,
But all his serious thoughts had rest in heaven.
As some tall cliff that lifts its awful form,
Swells from the vale, and midway leaves the storm,
Though round its breast the rolling clouds are spread,
Eternal sunshine settles on its head."

Monsieur Micol had come to Lake Geneva to convalesce after a severe illness, and we had many a delightful walk together over the hills, and through the pleasant groves that are so well cared for by the Swiss commune to which they belong. I remember especially one Sunday evening when he preached to all the people on the farm, the proprietress and her sons and daughters, the servants and farm-hands, and the summer visitors. The room was low and dark lighted only by a dim lamp, so that we could hardly see each others faces. And when he had read the scriptures and prayed, and we had sung a hymn, M. Micol stood up

and told the story of his people, of the persecutions against them; how especially after the council of Trent, fanaticism brought death and disaster upon them; how, in 1655, an army composed partly of French troops of Louis XIV, partly of Irish soldiers, who had fled before Cromwell, entered the Vaudois valleys and spread destruction on all sides, treating the people with such horrid barbarity that the conscience of Europe was aroused and England under Cromwell called on the Protestant powers to join in remonstrance to the Duke of Savoy and the French King. It was at this time that Milton wrote his famous sonnet (though M. Micol of course knew nothing of this):

"Avenge, O Lord, thy slaughter'd saints, whose bones,
Lie scattered on the Alpine mountains cold;
E'en them who kept thy truth so pure of old
When all our fathers worshipped stocks and stones.
Forget not; in thy book record their groans
Who were thy sheep, and in their ancient fold
Slain by the bloody Fiedmontese, that roll'd
Mother with infant down the rocks. Their moans
The vales redoubl'd to the hills, and they
To heav'n. Their martyred blood and ashes sow
O'er all th' Italian fields, where still doth sway
The triple tyrant; that from these may grow
A hundred-fold, who having learnt thy way,
Early may fly the Babylonian woe."

But the most dramatic of all incidents told by Pastor Micol was the persecution after the Revocation of the Edict de Nantes, in 1685, which aimed at the complete extermination of the Vaudois of the Alps. Finally a remnant of 2,600 were allowed to retire in safety to Geneva. But the loss of their native valley was strong among the exiles, and in 1689 one of their pastors, Henri Arnaud, led a band of eight hundred men back to reconquer their native land. I have on my table before me as I write a little book, given to me by Pastor Micol in which this heroic return, the "Glorieuse Rentrée" as they call it, of the Vaudois is described by the leader of the expedition himself. The long title of the book which is dedicated to Queen Anne of Great Britain, gives an idea of its contents: "The history of the

glorious return of the Vaudois into their valleys; where can be seen a troop of these people, never amounting to a thousand persons, sustaining a war against the King of France and against the Duke of Savoy; opposing their army of 20,000 men; opening way for themselves through Savoy and the Upper Dauphiné; defeating the enemy several times and finally miraculously reëntering into their ancestral lands, maintaining themselves there by force of arms, and reëstablishing there the worship of God, which for three years and a half had been prohibited. All this has been collected from the memoirs which were faithfully made concerning all that had taken place in this war of the Vaudois, and published through the care and at the expense of Henri Arnaud, Pastor and Colonel of the Vaudois."

But the limits of this article warn us that it is time to leave this beautiful country. In so doing I am reminded of four lines written on the card of a theological student of Paris, and nailed on the door of the room next to mine at Penau. It had remained there since the preceding summer:

"Les temps s'en va, on parle, on rit,
On entre, on sort;
Quoi! déjà l'été, déjà l'automne,
Déjà l'hiver, déjà la mort!"

(The time passes on, we speak and laugh,
We go out and in again;
What! Summer already! Autumn already!
Winter already! Death already!)

For time indeed passes, our summer is over, and in autumn and winter, travel in Switzerland is practically dead. But not without a certain elevation of thought, a deeper feeling for the majesty of nature can we leave the keen air of these high altitudes, these rivers and lakes, these smiling villages and prosperous cities, these green valleys and snow-covered mountains.

It is no small benefit that comes to us when we leave occasionally the absorbing pursuits of everyday life to breathe for a time the higher and purer atmosphere of nature. Not merely do we receive bodily and mental recre-

ation, but spiritual uplift as well. Nowhere can we taste so deeply the joys of elevated thoughts as in the mountain world of Switzerland. Nowhere do we experience so completely that mental and spiritual equilibrium, that sense of rest and peace which it is in the power of Nature to give to those who know how to receive it.

And we cannot close this brief account, in which not only have we enumerated the chief objects of interest in Switzerland, but have also tried to give the various phases of its peculiar spirit, than by quoting the poem on "The Love of the Alps," by John Addington Symonds:

"There was a time, ye mountains and ye streams,
  E'er yet I knew the might of your control;
But now where'er I go, your presence seems
  To fill the inmost chamber of my soul,
Restraining me in hours of sloth from wrong
And prompting nobler thoughts when I am strong.

"You saw and heard me; not one weary hour
  Of all that waiting time was spent in vain;
For since I felt your strong prophetic power,
  Beat in the fiery pulse of heart and brain,
You have not left your servant day or night,
But are his ceaseless source of comfort and delight.

"There was no blinding vision, no loud cry
  Of thunderous adjurations, when my soul
Felt that the consecrating grace was nigh,
  And heard the heavenly gates asunder roll,
And saw the hallowed mysteries and trod
The sounding chambers of the house of God.

"Sunsetting and sunrising, silent stars
  In dim procession through the untroubled sky,
Still winds that came and went, and noisy jars
  Of whirlwinds battling with the clouds on high,
The solitary voices of the floods,
Flowers, and deep places of primeval woods;

"These wrought the change; for these from childhood's dawn,
  Had nurtured me; thoughtless, as through the rites,
Of due initiation I was drawn
  Into communion with those sacred heights,
On which God's glory broodeth as a cloud,
Which with the voice of very God are loud."

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "A READING JOURNEY THROUGH SWITZERLAND."

CHAPTER I.

1. What conditions existed in Switzerland in the Stone Age? 2. Who were the Helvetii and what was the character of the civilization which succeeded theirs in Switzerland? 3. Describe the origin of German, French, and Italian Switzerland. 4. What historic interest has the date 1020? 5. What cantons formed the beginnings of the Swiss Confederacy? 6. Describe the events which led up to the Perpetual Pact. 7. Name and locate the twenty-two cantons of Switzerland. 8. What famous battles mark successful struggles of the Swiss for independence? 9. What legends are particularly cherished by the Swiss? 10. In what fitting way did the Swiss government celebrate the Schiller centenary? 11. Through what internal struggle did Switzerland pass in the last century? 12. In what respects does their government resemble that of the United States? 13. What remarkable experiment was initiated by the Swiss government? 14. What are some of the literary associations of Switzerland? 15. Describe the general topography of Switzerland.

CHAPTER II.

1. What are the chief routes into Switzerland? 2. What are the attractions of Bâle and Schaffhausen? 3. What famous scene took place at Constance. 4. Who was John Jacob Bodmer? 5. What parts of Switzerland can be seen from the Vetliberg?

CHAPTER III.

1. What are some of the peculiarities of travel in Switzerland? 2. What tragedy took place at Lake Zug? 3. What commercial importance has Lucerne? 4. What is the famous "Lion?" 5. What river flows through the town and what mountains are close at hand? 6. What is the legend of Mt. Pilatus? 7. Why has the Rigi achieved such popularity? 8. What are the notable features of a tour around Lake Lucerne? 9. What frescoes adorn "Tell's Chapel?" 10. What associations linger about Altdorf? 11. Why is Rütli venerated by the Swiss?

CHAPTER IV.

1. Describe the journey from Lucerne to Interlaken. 2. What are some of the quaint sights and customs of Bern? 3. What connection has the valley of Emmen with America? What fine prospect can be seen on Lake Brienz? 6. In what ways have the Swiss shown their skill in exploiting their native land? 7. What is the significance of the word "Lauterbrunnen?" 8. What characteristics give the place great charm? 9. What remarkable Alpine effects are found at Mürren? 10. How do avalanches appear as seen from the Wengern Alp? 11. What is the story of Bennen's fate? 12. What striking features has the road up the Jungfrau? 13. What various attractions has Grindelwald? 14. What are some of the most famous of Swiss glaciers? 15. What advantages for the traveler has the glacier at Grindelwald?

CHAPTER V.

1. What are the characteristics of the Gemmi Pass? What poem describes them? 2. What are some of the customs of the

Swiss village of Reuti? 3. What objects of interest are seen in the journey over the Grimsel Pass? 4. Describe the Rhone glacier. 5. What splendid views are obtained in crossing the Furka Pass? 6. What importance has Goeschenen? 7. Give some account of the development of the Swiss passes. 8. What are some of the striking characteristics of the St. Gotthard tunnel? 9. What Swiss-Italian lakes are reached by the St. Gotthard railway? 10. What are some of the literary associations of these lakes? 11. Compare the engineering feat of the Simplon Pass with that of the St. Gotthard.

CHAPTER VI.

1. What is the character of the journey from Visp to Zermatt? 2. What impression do the mountains make at Zermatt? 3. How did the ancient view of nature differ from that of the modern world? 4. Give instances showing how the change was brought about. 5. What tragic interest has the churchyard at Zermatt? 6. What records of disaster do the annals of Switzerland show? 7. How does Zermatt compare with some other famous Alpine centers? 8. What is the Gorner Grat? 9. What peaks can be seen from its summit? 10. What interesting combination of glaciers also can be observed? 11. How has the Matterhorn gradually come into fame? 12. What are some of the famous ascents of this mountain? 13. Who was Guido Rey?

CHAPTER VII.

1. In what varied ways have travelers expressed their feelings toward Chamonix and Mt. Blanc? 2. From what point can the Mer de Glace be visited? Describe this glacier. 3. What are some of the most interesting mountain trips from Chamonix? 4. What is the general history of attempts to climb Mt. Blanc? 5. What famous men have published books on mountain climbing in Switzerland?

CHAPTER VIII.

1. What was Rousseau's attitude toward nature and especially toward the Alps? What localities on Lake Geneva are associated with famous literary men? 3. What experiences of Byron and Shelley are connected with the Lake? 4. What is the general character of Geneva? 5. What fine views may be had from the Jura Mountains and at what points? 6. What are the facts regarding the original of the Prisoner of Chillon. 7. How do the French and Swiss shores of Lake Geneva differ in their character? 8. What labors of Voltaire were accomplished at Ferney? 9. What picture of peasant life at Penau is given by our author? 10. Give some account of the persecution of the Vaudois.

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GLOSSARY.

In the following glossary will be found a number of words whose pronunciation cannot be indicated accurately by spelling. They are marked with a star. The capital N stands for the French nasal sound, and to get the correct idea of this sound and of the French eu, also the German ch and the umlaut, the reader is advised to ask some friend who has studied French or German to help him. Circles will find it worth while to secure a teacher who can give them a number of short drills on the principles of pronunciation of French and German. Many of the proper names which one encounters in a Swiss tour have been so thoroughly anglicised that it is advisable to use only the English form. The Century Dictionary has been followed in the following list, the emphatic syllables being indicated by italics. Persons who find it inconvenient to secure a teacher may receive some help from the following suggestions:

The two little dots over a vowel in German, called the Umlaut, stand for an e that used to form part of the syllable. The sound of ü may be produced by keeping the lips in the position of saying the *oo* sound in *poor* and trying to utter the *ee* sound of *peer.*

A syllable marked thus *tre*(*r*)*me*(*r*), etc., indicates that *e* should be given the sound which it has in *er* though the *r* should not be sounded.

Alpnachstad	*ahlp*-nahch-staht	(Ger. ch)
Aix-la-Chapelle	aiks-lah-shah-*pel*	
*Aiguilles Rouges	a-gheeyeh-roozh	
Appenzell	*ah*-pen-tsel	
Aargau	*ahr*-gow	
Airolo	i-*ro*-lo	
Aar	ahr	
Arve	ahrv	
Aosta	ah-*os*-tah	
Annecy	ahn-*se*	
Axenstrasse	*ahks*-en-strah-seh	
Borromean	borrow-*me*-an	

*Blümlisalp	*blüm*-lis-ahlp (Ger. ü)
Brienz	breents
Bern	bern
Bâle	bahl
Brunnen	*broon*-en
*Brêvent	bray-*vaN*
Brieg	breeg
Bellaggio	bel-*lah*-jo
*Brünig	*bree*-nig
Col de la Faucille	kol de lah fo-see-yeh
Chamonix	*shah*-moo-nee
Coppet	ko-*pay*
*Chillon	she-*yoN*
*Clarens	klah-*roN*
Cima di Jazzie	che-mah-de-*yaht*-see
Como	*ko*-mo
*Dent Blanche	dawNbloNsh
Domodossola	do-mo-*dos*-so-lah
Davos-Platz	*dah*-vos-plahtz
Eiger	*i*-gher
Engadine	en-gah-*deen*
Eigerwand	i-gher-vant
*Evian-les-bains	aiv-yoN-lay-baN
Finsteraarhorn	fin-ster-*ahr*-horn
Faulhorn	*foul*-horn
Freiburg	*fri*-boorg
Flégère	flay-*jaire*
Ferney	fair-*nay*
Frutigen	*froo*-te-gen
Fogazzaro	fo-gaht-tzah-ro
Furka	*foor*-kah
Grimsel	*grim*-zel
Gemmi	*ghem*-me
Grindelwald	*grin*-del-vahld
Giessbach	*gees*-bach (Ger. ch.)
*Grandson	groN-soN
*Göschenen	*ge*(*r*)*sh*-en-en
Glarus	glah-roos
Gersau	*ger*-sow
*Grisons	*gree*-zohN
Guido	*gwe*-do
*Hörnli	*hern*-le
Helvetii	hel-*ve*-she-eye
Handeck	*hahn*-deck
Hapsburg	*haps*-burg
Hospenthal	*hos*-pen-tahl
Haslithal	*hahs*-lee-tahl
Interlaken	in-ter-*lah*-ken
Jungfrau	*yoong*-frow
Jura	*joo*-rah
Laupen	*louw*-pen
Langnau	*lahng*-now
Leuk	loik
Lavater	lah-*fah*-tair

Locarno	lo-*kahr*-no
Lugano	loo-*gah*-no
Lausanne	lo-zahné
Lecco	*lek*-ko
Lauterbrunnen	*lou*-ter-broon-en
*Montanvert	moN-toN-vair
*Mönch	me(r)nsh
Monte Rosa	mon-te-*ro*-sa
*Mont Blanc	moN-bloN
Mt. Cenis	moN se-*ne*
Marienwand	mah-*re*-en-vahnd
Maggiore	mahd-*jo*--rah
Mythenstein	*mee*-ten-stein
Meiringen	*mi*-ring-en
*Mürren	mürren (Ger. ü)
Menaggio	may-*nahd*-jo
Morges	morzh
Martigny	mahr-teen-*ye*
Murten	*moor*-ten
*Montreux	moN-tre(r)
Meillerie	may-er-ee
*Neuchatel	ne(r)-shah-*tel*
Niebelungenleid	*ne*-beh-loong-en-leed
Oberland	*o*-ber-lahnd
Porlezza	por-*let*-tsa
Pestalozzi	pes-tah-*lot*-see
Ouchy	oo-*she*
Rosenlaui	ro-zen-*louw*-wih
Rigi	re-ghee
Reuss	rois
*Rütli	*rüt*-le (Ger. ü)
*Splügen	*splü*-gen (Ger. ü)
*Simplon	saN-ploN
St. Gotthard	saint *gott*-hart
*Sempach	*sem*-pahch (Ger. ch.)
Schynige Platte	shine-e-geh-*plaht*-eh
Staubbach	*stoub*-bahch (Ger. ch)
Solothurn	so-lo-toorn
Stauffacher	stouf-*fahch*-er (Ger. ü)
Schaffhausen	shahf-how-zen
Scheideck	*shy*-dek
Schwyz	schveets
Tête Noire	tate-*nwahr*
*Tartarin	tar-tah-*raN*
*Theodule	ta-o-*dül* (Ger. ü)
Thun	toon
Totensee	to-ten-zay
Thurgau	t*oor*-gow (Ger. ü)
Ticino	te-*che*-no
*Trümmelbach	*trüm*-mel-bahch (Ger. ch)
Uri	*oo*-ree
Unterwalden	*un*-ter-valdt-en
Valais	*vah*-lay
Vaud	vo

Vitznau	*vits*-nou
Vaudois	*vo*-dwah
Von Winkelried	von *vink*-el-reed
Villeneuve	veel-ne(r)ve
Vevey	ve-*vay*
Winterthur	*vin*-ter-toor
Wetterhorn	*vet*-ter-horn
Weggis	*veg*-gis
Weisshorn	*veiss*-horn
Wengern	*ven*-gern
Zürich	zoorik
Zug	zoog
Zermatt	zer-*maht*
Zwingli	*zwing*-lee

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR CIRCLES AND CLUBS

The following programs are "suggestive" only. Many clubs will wish to go over carefully the review questions for each chapter. Supplementary pictures will be found in books and magazines and frequent reference to maps will help to make the journey more vivid as one appreciates the relation of localities to each other. The leader can do much to add to the interest of the lesson by looking up allusions which are not noted in the programs.

FIRST PROGRAM.

1. Map drawing of Switzerland from memory, locating the cantons and chief lakes. Members should study the map thoroughly beforehand. A map may if desired be exhibited for two minutes just before the drawing exercise begins and then ten minutes allowed for the actual drawing from memory:

2 Papers: Switzerland previous to 1291; the Swiss cantons against the Hapsburgs.

3. Readings: Song of the Battle of Morgarten, Felicia Hemans; the Patriot's Password, James Montgomery; from Longfellow's "Poems of Places: Switzerland."

4. Brief oral reports on the present population of Switzerland covering (1) density, (2) languages spoken, (3) emigration, (4) religious affinities, (5) education. (See encyclopedias, "Swiss life in town and country," "Social Switzerland," and "A Sovereign People.")

5. Discussion: The Initiative and Referendum in Operation. See article with this title by A. S. Hardy in *Independent*, 62:1407-10, June 13, '07.

6. Roll Call: Characteristics of the different cantons. (See Baedeker, encyclopedias and "Swiss Life in Town and Country.")

SECOND PROGRAM.

1. Paper: The City of Bâle, its University, its famous council, and the two treaties of 1795. (See "Baedeker," encyclopedias and histories.)

2. Discussion: Hans Holbein the younger and his pictures: (See "Holbein" in *Masters in Art* Series, price 20 cents, containing ten illustrations with comments and brief biography.)

3. Paper: John Huss and Jerome of Prague. (See encyclopedias, lives of Huss, works on the Reformation, etc.)

4. Readings: From Victor Hugo's "Alps and Pyrenees" on the sources of the Rhine; also from The Trumpeter of Säckingen. (See THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 35:93, and "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature" under Scheffel.)

5. Paper: Zwingli and the Reformation in Switzerland.

6. Map Review: The Swiss Mountains, their general character and the most famous peaks. (See the present article and "Baedeker.")

7. Roll Call: Facts regarding Swiss glaciers and glaciers in general. (See encyclopedias and bibliography.)

THIRD PROGRAM.

1. A study of Schiller's William Tell. (See THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 34:624-33. One member should lead the discussion giving the outline of the story and bringing out the striking features of the poem, appointing in advance certain members to read illustrative selections.)

2. Roll Call: Quotations from Schiller's William Tell.

3. Paper: Switzerland from the Reformation to the present time.

4. Readings: Selections from The Rigi-Kulm in "A Tramp Abroad" by Mark Twain; also from "Tartarin on the Alps" by Daudet. (Selections from the latter will be found in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 35:197.)

5. Selections from Wordsworth's poems relating to Swiss scenery.

6. Pronunciation match on Swiss proper names. See pp. 456-9 of this magazine.

FOURTH PROGRAM.

1. Paper: Swiss Industries and Workingmen's Societies. (See "Swiss Life in Town and Country," "Social Switzerland," and "A Sovereign People.")

2. Readings: From Longfellow's "Hyperion," and from "Over the Alps on a Bicycle," The Crossing of the Brünig Pass. (This was first published in the *Century Magazine* for April 1898.)

3. The Nationalization of the Swiss Railways. (See article with this title in *Arena*, 36:577-84. Dec., '06.)

4. Map Review with all available pictures: The Mountains of the Bernese Oberland.

7. Roll Call: Anecdotes of adventures in the mountains of this region. (See bibliography.)

5. A Review of Articles entitled "Steepest Railway in the World," *Rev. of Rev.*, 30:438-40, Oct., 1904, and "To the Jungfrau peak by trolley," *Century Magazine*, 72:245-53.

6. Reading: "Truth at Last," E. R. Sill. See The Library Shelf in this magazine.

FIFTH PROGRAM.

1. Paper: The Alp Pastures and Agriculture. (See "Swiss Life in Town and Country.")

2. Reading: "Above the Clouds at Metequi," *Atlantic*, 96:251-6, August, '05.

3. Map Review: Swiss Passes: St. Gotthard, Simplon, Great St. Bernard, Splügen, Brünig, Furka, Grimsel, Gemmi, and Col de la Faucille. (Items of interest regarding these will be found in "Baedeker," Mrs. Pennell's "Over the Alps on a Bicycle," and other books.)

4. Paper: Religious Life and Influences among the Swiss. (See "Swiss Life in Town and Country," histories, encyclopedias, etc.)

5. Reading: Tobogganing on a glacier. J. A. Symonds in "Our Life in the Swiss Highlands," or from "Alpine Climbing in Automobiles," *Century Magazine*, 70:605-16, August, '05.

6. Roll Call: Swiss legends and superstitions. (See "Swiss Life in Town and Country," "Baedeker," etc.)

SIXTH PROGRAM.

1. Roll Call: Quotations from distinguished writers showing the influence of the Alps upon them.

2. Map Review: "The Heart of the Alps."

3. Papers: Edward Whymper; John Tyndall. (See encyclopedias, biographies and magazine articles and their own works.)

4. Brief Reports: Famous Swiss guides and incidents concerning them. (See books by Tyndall, Whymper, Conway and others.)

5. Book Review: "Up the Matterhorn in a Boat," a whimsical tale first published in *The Century Magazine*, July to October, 1906.

6. Reading: Selections from Whymper's "Scrambles Among the Alps," or from articles in *McClure's Magazine* for September, 1895, and July, 1896, on the Matterhorn.

SEVENTH PROGRAM.

1. Roll Call: Pronunciation of Swiss proper names, a half dozen or more being assigned to each member.

2. Paper: Swiss Climate and its effect upon health. (See encyclopedias, "Swiss Life in Town and Country," and chapters on Davos in "Our Life in the Swiss Highlands," Symonds.)

3. Map Review of Chamonix and its environs.

4. Reading: Coleridge's "Hymn to Mont Blanc." (See selections in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 35:197.)

5. Oral Reports: Coleridge's Visit to Switzerland; Leslie Stephen; John Addington Symonds. (See "Poole's Index" for magazine articles on both of the latter.)

6. Reading: "Sunset on Mont Blanc," from Leslie Stephen's "The Playground of Europe." (See Library Shelf in this magazine.)

EIGHTH PROGRAM.

1. Papers: John Calvin; Byron and Shelley at Lake Geneva.

2. Readings: From W. D. Howell's "A Little Swiss Sojourn," his amusing account of Bonivard. (This was first published in *Harper's Magazine*, 76:452, 572.)

3. Brief reports: Vine culture in Switzerland. (See "Swiss Life in Town and Country"); Voltaire in Switzerland; Associations connected with Rousseau.

4. Reading: Selections from "The Alps on a Motor Cycle," J. Pennell, *Century Magazine*, 67:607-13, February, '04.

5. Review of article on "Open Air Parliaments of Switzerland." *Rev. of Rev.*, 35:205-8, Feb., '07.

6. Roll Call: Answered by giving three respects in which Switzerland has rendered conspicuous service to the world.

Sunset on Mount Blanc

From "The Playground of Europe"

By Leslie Stephen

WE were alone with the mighty dome, dazzling our eyes in the brilliant sunshine, and guarded by its sleeping avalanches. Luckily there was no temptation to commit the abomination of walking "against time" or racing any rival caravan of climbers. The whole day was before us, for it would have been undesirable to reach the chilly summit too early; and we could afford the unusual luxury of lounging up Mont Blanc. We took, I hope full advantage of our opportunities. We could peer into the blue depths of crevasses, so beautiful that one might long for such a grave, were it not for the awkward prospect of having one's bones put under a glass case by the next generation of scientific travelers. We could record in our memories the strange forms of the shattered séracs, those grotesque ice-masses which seem to suggest that the monarch himself has a certain clumsy sense of humour. We lingered longest on the summit of the Dome du Goute,

itself a most majestic mountain were it not overawed by its gigantic neighbor. There, on the few ledges of rock which are left exposed in summer, the thunder has left its scars. The lightning's strokes have covered numbers of stones with little glass-like beads, showing that this must be one of its favorite haunts. But on this glorious summer day the lightnings were at rest; and we could peacefully count over the vast wilderness of peaks which already stretched far and wide beneath our feet. The lower mountain ranges appeared to be drawn up in parallel ranks like the sea waves heaved in calm weather by a monotonous ground-swell. Each ridge was blended into a uniform hue by the intervening atmosphere, sharply defined along the summit line, and yet only distinguished from its predecessor and successor by a delicate gradation of tone. Such a view produces the powerful but shadowy impressions which one expects from an opium dream. The vast perspective drags itself out to an horizon so distant as to blend imperceptibly with the lower sky. It has a vague suggestion of rhythmical motion, strangely combined with eternal calm. Drop a pebble into a perfectly still sheet of water; imagine that each ripple is supplanted by a lofty mountain range, of which all detail is lost in purple haze, and that the furthest undulations melt into the mysterious infinite. One gazes with a sense of soothing melancholy as one listens to plaintive modulations of some air of linked "sweetness long drawn out." Far away among the hills we could see long reaches of the peaceful Lake of Geneva, just gleaming through the varying purple; but at our backs the icy crest of the great mountain still rose proudly above us, to remind us that our task was not yet finished. . . .

Carefully calculating our time, we advanced along the "dromedary's Hump" and stepped upon the culminating ridge of the mountain about an hour before sunset. We had time to collect ourselves, to awake our powers of observation, and to prepare for the grand spectacle, for which preparations were already being made. There had been

rehearsals enough in all conscience to secure a perfect performance. For millions of ages the lamps had been lighted and the transparencies had been shown with no human eye to observe or hand to applaud. Twice, I believe only twice before, an audience had taken its place in this lofty gallery. . . . And now we waited eagerly for the performance to commence; the cold was sufficient to freeze the wine in our bottles, but in still air the cold is but little felt, and by walking briskly up and down and adopting the gymnastic exercise in which the London cabman delights in cold weather, we were able to keep up a sufficient degree of circulation. I say "we," but I am libeling the most enthusiastic member of the party. Loppé sat resolutely on the snow, at the risk, as we might have thought, of following the example of Lot's wife. Superior, as it appeared, to all the frailties which beset the human frame suddenly plunged into a temperature I know not how many degrees below freezing-point, he worked with ever increasing fury in a desperate attempt to fix upon canvas some of the magic beauties of the scene. Glancing from earth to heaven and from north to south, sketching with breathless rapidity the appearance of the eastern ranges, and then wheeling round like a weathercock to make hasty notes of the western clouds, breaking out at times into uncontrollable exclamations of delight, or reproving his thoughtless companions when their opaque bodies eclipsed a whole quarter of the heavens, he enjoyed, I should fancy, an hour of as keen delight as not often occurs to an enthusiastic lover of the sublime in nature. We laughed, envied and admired, and he escaped frostbites. I wish that I could substitute his canvas, though, to say the truth, I fear it would exhibit a slight confusion of the points of the compass—for my words; but, as that is impossible, I must endeavor briefly to indicate the most impressive features of the scenery. My readers must kindly set their imaginations to work in aid of feeble language; for even the most eloquent language is but a poor substitute for a painter's brush, and a painter's brush lags far behind

these grandest aspects of nature. The easiest way of obtaining the impression is to follow in my steps; for in watching a sunset from Mont Blanc one feels that one is passing one of those rare moments of life at which all the surrounding scenery is instantaneously and indelibly photographed on the mental retina by a process which no second-hand operation can even dimly transfer to others. To explain its nature requires a word or two of preface.

The ordinary view from Mont Blanc is not especially picturesque—and for a sufficient reason. The architect has concentrated his whole energies in producing a single impression. Everything has been so arranged as to intensify the sense of vast height and an illimitable horizon. In a good old guide-book I have read, on the authority (I think) of Pliny, that the highest mountain in the world is 300,000 feet above the sea; and one is apt to fancy, on ascending Mont Blanc, that the guess is not so far out. The effect is perfectly unique in the Alps; but it is produced at a certain sacrifice. All dangerous rivals have been removed to such a distance as to become apparently insignificant. No grand mass can be admitted into the foreground; for the sense of vast size is gradually forced upon you by the infinite multiplicity of detail. Mont Blanc must be an Asiatic despot, alone and supreme, with all inferior peaks reverently couched at his feet. If a man, previously as ignorant of geography as a boy who has just left a public school, could be transported for a moment to the summit, his impression would be that the Alps resembled a village of a hundred hovels grouped round a stupendous cathedral. Fully to appreciate this effect, requires a certain familiarity with Alpine scenery, for otherwise the effect produced is a dwarfing of the inferior mountains into pettiness instead of an exaltation of Mont Blanc into almost portentous magnificence. Grouped around you at unequal distances lie innumerable white patches, looking like the tented encampments of scattered army corps. Hold up a glove at arm's length, and it will cover the whole of such

a group. On the boundless plain beneath (I say "plain," for the greatest mountain system of Europe appears to have subsided into a rather uneven plain), it is a mere spot, a trifling dent upon the huge shield on whose central boss you are placed. But you know, though at first you can hardly realize the knowledge, that that insignificant discoloration represents a whole mountain district. One spot, for example, represents the clustered peaks of the Bernese Oberland; a block, as big as a pebble, is the soaring Jungfrau, the terrible mother of avalanches; a barely distinguishable wrinkle is the reverse of those snowy wastes of the Blümlis Alp, which seem to be suspended above the terrace of Bern, thirty miles away; and that little whitish streak represents the greatest ice stream of the Alps, the huge Aletsch glacier, whose monstrous proportions have been impressed upon you by hours of laborious plodding. One patch contains the main sources from which the Rhine descends to the German Ocean, two or three more overlook the Italian plains and encircle the basin of the Po; from a more distant group flows the Danube, and from your feet the snow melts to supply the Rhone. You feel that you are in some sense looking down upon Europe from Rotterdam to Venice and from Varna to Marseilles. The vividness of the impression depends entirely upon the degree to which you can realize the immense size of all these immeasurable details. Now, in the morning, the usual time for an ascent, the details are necessarily vague, because the noblest part of the view lies between the sun and the spectator. But in the evening light each ridge, and peak, and glacier stands out with startling distinctness, and each, therefore, is laden with its weight of old association. There, for example, was the grim Matterhorn: its angular dimensions were of infinitesmal minuteness; it would puzzle a mathematician to say how small a space its image would occupy on his retina; but, within that small space, its form was defined with exquisite accuracy; and we could recognize the precise configuration

of the wild labyrinth of rocky ridges up which the earlier adventurers forced their way from the Italian side. And thus we not only knew, but felt that at our feet was lying a vast slice of the map of Europe. The effect was to exaggerate the apparent height, till the view had about it something portentous and unnatural: it seemed to be such a view as could be granted not even to mountaineers of earthly mould, but rather to some genie from the "Arabian Nights," flying high above a world tinted with the magical colouring of old romance.

Thus distinctly drawn, though upon so minute a scale, every rock and slope preserved its true value, and the impression of stupendous height became almost oppressive as it was forced upon the imagination that a whole world of mountains, each of them a mighty mass in itself, lay couched far beneath our feet, reaching across the whole diameter of the vast panorama. And now, whilst occupied in drinking in that strange sensation, and allowing our minds to recover their equilibrium from the first staggering shock of astonishment, began the strange spectacle of which we were the sole witnesses. One long delicate cloud, suspended in mid-air just below the sun, was gradually adorning itself with prismatic coloring. Round the limitless horizon ran a faint fog-bank, unfortunately not quite thick enough to produce that depth of coloring which sometimes makes an Alpine sunset inexpressibly gorgeous. The weather— it was the only complaint we had to make—erred on the side of fineness. But the coloring was brilliant enough to prevent any thoughts of serious disappointment. The long series of western ranges melted into a uniform hue as the sun declined in their rear. Amidst their folds the Lake of Geneva became suddenly lighted up in a faint yellow gleam. To the east a blue gauze seemed to cover valley by valley, as they sank into night and the intervening ridges rose with increasing distinctness, or rather it seemed that some fluid of exquisite delicacy of color and substance was flooding all the lower country beneath the great mountains. Peak

by peak the high snow fields caught the rosy glow and shone like signal fires across the dim breadths of delicate twilight. Like Xerxes, we looked over the countless host sinking into rest, but with the rather different reflection, that a hundred years hence they would probably be doing much the same thing, whilst we should long have ceased to take any interest in the performance. And suddenly began a more startling phenomenon. A vast cone, with its apex pointing away from us, seemed to be suddenly cut out from the world beneath; night was within its borders and the twilight still all round; the blue mists were quenched where it fell, and for the instant we could scarcely tell what was the origin of this strange appearance. Some unexpected change seemed to have taken place in the program; as though a great fold in the curtain had suddenly given way, and dropped on to part of the scenery. Of course, a moment's reflection explained the meaning of this uncanny intruder; it was the giant shadow of Mont Blanc, testifying to his supremacy over all meaner eminences. It is difficult to say how sharply marked was the outline, and how startling was the contrast between this pyramid of darkness and the faintly lighted spaces beyond its influence; a huge inky blot seemed to have suddenly fallen upon the landscape. As we gazed we could see it move. It swallowed up ridge by ridge, and its sharp point crept steadily from one landmark to another down the broad Valley of Aosta. We were standing, in fact, on the point of the gnomon of a gigantic sundial, the face of which was formed by thousands of square miles of mountain and valley. So clear was the outline that, if figures had been scrawled upon glaciers and ridges, we could have told the time to a second; indeed, we were half inclined to look for our own shadows at a distance so great that whole villages would be represented by a scarcely distinguishable speck of coloring. The huge shadow, looking ever more strange and magical, struck the distant Becca di Nona, and then climbed into the dark region where the broader shadow of the world

was rising into the eastern sky. By some singular effect of perspective, rays of darkness seemed to be converging from above our heads to a point immediately above the apex of the shadowy cone. For a time it seemed that there was a kind of anti-sun in the east, pouring out not light, but deep shadow as it rose. The apex soon reached the horizon, and then to our surprise began climbing the distant sky. Would it never stop, and was Mont Blanc capable of overshadowing not only the earth but the sky? For a minute or two I fancied, in a bewildered way, that the unearthly object would fairly rise from the ground and climb upwards to the zenith. But rapidly the lights went out upon the great army of mountains; the snow all round took the livid hue which immediately succeeds an Alpine sunset, and almost at a blow the shadow of Mont Blanc was swallowed up in the general shade of night. The display had ceased suddenly at its culminating point, and it was highly expedient for the spectators to retire. We had no time to lose if we would get off the summit before the grip of the frost should harden the snows into an ice-crust; and in a minute we were running and sliding downwards at our best pace towards the familiar Corridor. Yet as we went the sombre magnificence of the scenery seemed for a time to increase. We were between the day and the night. The western heavens were of the most brilliant blue with spaces of transparent green, whilst a few scattered cloudlets glowed as if with internal fire. To the east the night rushed up furiously, and it was difficult to imagine that the dark purple sky was really cloudless and not blackened by the rising of some portentous storm. That it was, in fact, cloudless, appeared from the unbroken disc of the full moon, which, if I may venture to say so, had a kind of silly expression, as though it were a bad imitation of the sun, totally unable to keep the darkness in order.

> With how sad steps, O moon, thou climb'st the sky,
> How silently and with how wan a face!

as Sidney exclaims. And truly, set in that strange gloom the moon looked wan and miserable enough; the lingering sunlight showed by contrast that she was but a feeble source of illumination; and, but for her half-comic look of helplessness, we might have sympathized with the astronomers who tell us that she is nothing but a vast perambulating tombstone, proclaiming to all mankind in the words of the familiar epitaph, "As I am now, you soon shall be!" To speak after the fashion of early mythologies, one might fancy that some supernatural cuttlefish was shedding his ink through the heavens to distract her, and that the poor moon had but a bad chance of escaping his clutches. Hurrying downwards with occasional glances at the sky, we had soon reached the Grand Plateau, whence our further retreat was secure, and from that wildest of mountain fastnesses we saw the last striking spectacle of the evening. In some sense it was perhaps the most impressive of all. As all Alpine travelers know, the Grand Plateau is a level space of evil omen, embraced by a vast semicircle of icy slopes. The avalanches which occasionally descend across it, and which have caused more than one catastrophe, give it a bad reputation; and at night the icy jaws of the great mountain seem to be enclosing you in a fatal embrace. At this moment there was something half grotesque in its sternness. Light and shade were contrasted in a manner so bold as to be almost bizarre. One half of the cirque was of a pallid white against the night, which was rushing up still blacker and thicker, except that a few daring stars shone out like fiery sparks against a pitchy canopy; the other half, reflecting the black night, was relieved against the last gleams of daylight; in front a vivid band of blood-red light burnt along the horizon, beneath which seemed to lie an abyss of mysterious darkness. It was the last struggle between night and day, and the night seemed to assume a more ghastly ferocity as the day sank, pale and cold, before its antagonist. The Grand Plateau, indeed, is a fit scene for such contrasts; for there in mid-day you may feel the reflection of

the blinding snows like the blast of a furnace, where a few hours before you were realizing the keenest pangs of frost-bite. The cold and the night were now the conquerors, and the angry sunset-glow seemed to grudge the victory. The light rapidly faded, and the darkness, no longer seen in the strange contrast, subsided to its ordinary tones. The magic was gone; and it was in a commonplace though lovely summer night that we reached our resting-place at the Grand Mulets.

Truth at Last.*

Does a man ever give up hope, I wonder,—
Face the grim fact, seeing it clear as day?
When Bennen saw the snow slip, heard its thunder
Low, louder, roaring round him, felt the speed
Grow swifter as the avalanche hurled downward,
Did he for just one heart-throb—did he indeed
Know with all certainty, as they swept onward,
There was the end, where the crag dropped away?
Or did he think, even till they plunged and fell,
Some miracle would stop them? Nay, they tell
That he turned round, face forward, calm and pale,
Stretching his arms out toward his native vale
As if in mute, unspeakable farewell,
And so went down.—'Tis something, if at last,
Though only for a flash, a man may see
Clear-eyed the future as he sees the past,
From doubt, or fear, or hope's illusion free.

E. R. Sill.

*From "Collected Poems," Edward Rowland Sill. By permission of the publishers, Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

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Every leader knows the advantages of "team play." The astute politician, the athletic coach, the principal of the public school, the successful club leader—all rely upon that one indispensable quality in securing the best results. When friendships are broken up—when wars prevail, it is because somehow that magic touchstone has been lost. The C. L. S. C. this year is to make a study of the possibilities of international "team play." Very rudimentary forms are all we can discover as yet in this somewhat quarrelsome planet of ours, but evolution is going on and a step in hastening the process is to discover the highest forms which have so far developed. It is a subject of much interest to the general public, and churches, Y. M. C. A.'s, and clubs ought to have no difficulty in forming circles.

Many persons have an idea that to be ignorant on the subject of art is rather commendable. Their attitude is satirized in the famous "bromide" by Mr. Gellett Burgess, who represents them as saying complacently: "I don't know anything about art but I know what I like." Such people, often quite unconsciously, shut themselves out of a fascinating world; therefore

Chautauqua aims to open doors for them and to lure them into the development of powers which they scarcely know they possess. No field of study more richly repays a little intelligent effort than that of art. Gifted men in every country have struggled to express their sense of the beauty of nature and of the human form, and every intelligent man and woman ought to have the privilege of understanding the message which these men have left to the world. Holland, which has so often been the world's teacher, has achieved great things in the art of painting. THE CHAUTAUQUAN series on "Dutch Art and Artists," beginning next month, is an opportunity not to be missed.

SOME IMPRESSIONS OF THE NEW COURSE.

The new course for the coming Modern European year has already shown its "pulling power." People recognize its educational value as well as its readable qualities. Leaders at the various Chautauquas who are usually the first to make a practical test of it write enthusastically. One platform superintendent from Ohio says: "There has never been a circle here, there will be if I have to be part of the circumference myself."

An Indiana Round Table leader writes: "I am certainly pleased with the work for this year. In 'Man and the Earth' I like the author's optimistic view point. His ideas of man's continued development spiritually and intellectually and faith in both man and the power behind the earth-plan cannot fail to make an interesting study.

The president of a Kansas Chautauqua has been examining the new books with this result: "When I began reading 'Man and the Earth' I forgot all about the rest of them. It fascinated me so that I nearly finished the book yesterday. In my judgment you have not sent out a more interesting and delightful set of books than those for the coming year. I shall take every opportunity to urge their value upon our Chautauquans."

A WORD TO CIRCLES.

It was said of Wellington that one of his chief sources of strength was his careful preparation for every campaign. Men and supplies, possibilities of every sort were anticipated and when the time for action came he was ready. Some such strategic power which will insure success may readily become a quality of any Chautauqua Circle. Let one or more committees hold occasional meetings during the summer and work out plans for the autumn. A circular letter to old members early in September can be sent out with good results. An interview with the local librarian may enable the committee to secure additional books for the use of the circle, or at least to get from the librarian a typewritten list of books bearing upon next year's course. Some one should see to it that the books are on hand early. Arrangements for a Chautauqua Vesper Service in the early autumn might be made. Articles written for the local paper would make known to the public the purpose and possibilities of Chautauqua work. Material suitable for use in a local paper will be furnished by the Chautauqua Office, and in this way many people not in touch with Club and Circle life but who would like to read by themselves may be reached.

A PHILIPPINE CHAUTAUQUA.

It is quite in accordance with American educational ideas in the Philippines under the direction of Dr. David P. Barrows, that a "Chautauqua" should be part of the program this year. The official name of the gathering which was held some two months ago was the "Vacation Assembly," but Chautauqua may fairly lay claim to this child of the far Pacific since its teaching staff included such early Chautauqua teachers as Professors W. D. McClintock and Frederick Starr of the University of Chicago. The Assembly was picturesquely situated high up in the mountains among the pine trees where the temperature varies

only from sixty to eighty degrees and the air is so invigorating that it is an ideal refuge for many teachers after their year of work in the tropical regions below. Baguio, the site of the assembly, is on the island of Benguet and as there are many representatives of various native tribes within easy reach doubtless some of those present prevailed upon Professor Starr to organize personally conducted parties to these localities. The *Teachers Assembly Herald,* a four-page sheet which was printed each day of the session, gives reports of the various lecture series which dealt with important educational problems. Some of the lighter features of the Assembly included tennis, an athletic "meet," various social gatherings including bonfires, readings from popular authors, etc. The Governor General of the Philippines, James F. Smith, in his address at the Assembly, paid high tribute to the influence of the American teacher in helping to solve successfully some of the most perplexing problems of the Philippine government.

A SPECIAL COURSE ON SWITZERLAND.

The series of articles on Switzerland in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN will, with two additional books, constitute a C. L. S. C. special course for which a seal will be awarded after the applicant has filled out a brief review paper containing twenty-five questions, sent upon payment of the fee of fifty cents.

The selection of the required books permits some liberty of choice. For the first book any one of the following:

A Short History of Switzerland. K. Dändliker.
The Story of Switzerland. R. Stead and Mrs. A. Hug.
Swiss Life in Town and Country. Story.
A Sovereign People. Henry D. Lloyd.

For the second book, any one of the following:

Scrambles Among the Alps. E. Whymper.
Hours of Exercise in the Alps. J. Tyndall.
The Playground of Europe. Leslie Stephen.
Our Life in the Swiss Highlands. John Addington and M. A. Symonds.

THE RECENT AMERICAN YEAR—AS CHAUTAUQUANS SEE IT.

The course of study in foreign criticism of America which Chautauqua readers have been taking this year under the genial leadership of Mr. John Graham Brooks, has presumably prepared them to play the rôle of critic themselves. They have been learning on the one hand "how not to do it" and on the other how criticism may be administered very successfully as a tonic beneficial to all concerned. Recently Chautauqua has sent out a list of questions to all the circles asking them to make critical comments upon the reading course for the past year. An analysis of fifty replies which have been received up to the date of this writing brings out some facts well worth considering: The circles were first asked to enumerate in order of preference three articles or series of articles in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for the past year. Mr. Brooks' series, "As Others See Us," easily took the lead, but American Painting showed a somewhat close second and the series on American Scientists was far and away the favorite as regards the third place. The brief biographies of distinguished people were often coupled with the vote for the scientists which seems to indicate that the human as well as the scientific element had proved an attraction in this series. The articles relating to Immigration and Highways and Byways were especially commended. The Library Shelf, Vesper Hour, literary articles and Round Table received some scattering votes but the limit of choice to three naturally brought the Required Reading to the front.

A slight attempt at a psychological study of the circles' membership was made in the question "Upon receipt of the magazine to what part of it do you first turn?" In these answers the leadership of the Round Table is doubtless explained by the eagerness of members for program material, order of reading and new announcements, though interest in their fellow readers, class affairs, etc., also seem to have been with some a compelling cause. The fact that Highways and Byways claimed the next largest share of

interest going ahead even of the illustrations which ranked next, shows that Chautauquans are alive to the connection between books and everyday life. As above noted many readers first take a bird's eye view of the contents of the magazine by means of its illustrations, but quite a number it appears first turn to the required reading. These are doubtless those forehanded souls who are always on time! The Vesper Hour makes the first appeal to some and still other readers with presumably the instinct for browsing look first for the Library Shelf.

One of the most striking features of this experiment is the revelation of strong individuality characterizing the circles. The fifty whose criticisms are being discussed, are plainly a typical group. They come from twenty-one different states. One-sixth represent village communities, another sixth the larger cities, the remaining two-thirds being evenly divided between towns numbering between five and fifty thousand and those between five hundred and five thousand.

In response to the request for comment favorable or otherwise upon the books of the year, the liveliest discussion resulted. "Races and Immigrants" far outdistanced the rest, then "Newer Ideals of Peace," "American Literature and last "Provincial Types in American Fiction." A number of circles contented themselves with general comments: "all interesting and helpful," "nothing but favorable comment," "particularly fine," "very favorable," "books of unusual interest," "educational, very interesting and helpful," "compare favorably with other years," etc. As a foil to these was the comment, "poorest and least interesting of any year."

American Literature while accorded much approval was objected to by some as "too general," "too scattering;" others while enjoying its point of view felt that a book of selections with particular studies of authors would have suited them better. The wisdom of repeating a book like "Provincial Types" was questioned. Its influence in stimulating a closer acquaintance with American masterpieces was

however, very apparent, while a number ranked it next to "Races and Immigrants" in their choice of favorites. About the latter book there was remarkable unanimity of sentiment, the fact that it was reprinted from a CHAUTAUQUAN series of four years ago, seeming to present no obstacle. This and "Newer Ideals of Peace" were frequently mentioned together as the important books of the year. But it was over Miss Addams' book that the greatest intensity of feeling was expressed. Its style was a stumbling block to some who halted over the unfamiliar words: "difficult for the average reader," "not simplified enough in expression," etc. But that it set people thinking and that Chautauquans are practical folk eager for results is evident: "more ideal than practical," "critical rather than constructive," some said. One earnest circle anxious to help along the millennium felt that it "points out weaknesses without finding a cure." Some day perchance the result may show that the book itself is one of the beginnings of the cure. The very intensity of the criticisms gave them a touch of humor. One southern circle wrote, "books delightful and two of them touched our city politics;" another feared "so much harping upon equality" in the year's books. Two northern circles felt that Miss Addams championed the cause of the immigrant too ardently in view of general socialistic and anarchistic dangers, and a western circle which heartily enjoyed "Newer Ideals" was nevertheless "unanimously in favor of keeping our navy as a safeguard to peace." On the other hand, one circle was especially pleased with the literary style of the book; another which was in close touch with the playground movement discussed it with interest, and a large proportion found it most stimulating. The frankness of the criticisms is a pleasant indication that the circles are doing their own thinking and eager to get the best results from their course of study.

In reply to the question as to possible improvements in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, very few suggestions were offered, and some of these presented problems difficult of solution. Such

expressions of opinion are, however, much appreciated and readers may be assured that due weight will be given to them all.

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

Naturally the August meeting of the Round Table was reminiscent of the year's achievements. The delegate from Lincoln, Nebraska, was the first to be heard from. "I really don't belong here," she said apologetically, "for our Circle lapsed last year, but I thought we might serve to 'point a moral and adorn a tale' when I tell you that we had a reunion in April at which our chief topic of conversation was what we had lost by disbanding!" "It reminds me," said a Boston member, "of a recent story by Robert Herrick in *The Atlantic* in which a husband and wife accidentally met after being separated for twelve years. It developed that the separation hadn't been a success for either of them and they concluded that they were more 'compatible' than they had supposed. Like the Lincoln delegate, I commend the moral of my tale to circles meditating separation!"

"Fortunately or unfortunately, I'm an individual reader and can't separate," laughed a business man from Atlanta, Georgia. "But I can assure you that this year's course has proved of great benefit to me. I especially enjoyed Mr. Common's 'Races and Immigrants.' It opened my eyes to the real situation of the negro here in the South and I intend to make a thorough study of this broad question."

"This is my first year in the C. L. S. C.," remarked a Pennsylvanian who had been conferring with his Southern neighbor. "Our town of Minersville with approximately six thousand people has become in the last fifteen years about half foreign. Poles, Slavs, Italians, and Tyrolese have influenced our community life tremendously. It would seem that material for first hand study is here. I have read the books with great interest, pleasure, enthusiasm and profit. I think I can safely say that the reading has been an epoch in my thinking. I have felt the desire to get into the struggle, to make the glorious suggestions and possibilities realities."

The foreign mail arriving at this juncture, Pendragon broke the seal of a letter from London. "This is from Miss Cox, our Bermuda member of 1909," he said, "who has been sojourning in England for some time. She says that she has been following out a Chautauqua suggestion for this year and studying conditions of life about her, particularly the immigration situation which is becoming such a serious factor in English life, and the problem of

the unemployed. She says, 'I have enjoyed a visit to Blenheim this year. Mrs. Burnett's "Shuttle" is such a good study of Anglo-American alliances, descendants of working English people coming back to finance the estates. How splendidly the Chautauqua Reading Course prepares one for enjoying the historic, literary, and artistic side of Europe. I have spent two weeks in Oxford this year but must content myself now by telling you that Oxford students and professors told me I should become a cicerone for that grand old city! I have been spending a month at Aldershot. His Majesty was down for manoevers and it was thrilling to hear the national anthem played in his presence. Then I went to a searchlight tattoo given for H. R. H. the Prince of Wales. There was a splendid concert by sixteen massed bands of England's best regiments. When they rendered "Abide with me" it was very impressive. . . . I have visited Westminster Abbey three times again this year, pausing by the tombs of Darwin, Newton, Livingston, Handel, Disraeli, Gladstone, and Browning. So far I have been in the National Gallery twice on this trip, more interesting than ever after studying British Artists in THE CHAUTAUQUAN last year. Have enjoyed Kew gardens several times this year and look forward to much Chautauqua work next winter.'"

The delegate from Almira, Washington, presented a copy of their Longfellow program as the Circle has made a special point of observing memorial days, inviting guests and in this way drawing attention to the work. As the President of the Circle is editor of the local paper, the Chautauquans are able to exert some educational influence upon the community.

"We have had a delightful year," reported the delegate from Upper Sandusky, Ohio. "We gave special attention to American Literature, with much memorizing of quotations when we required the circle to name the authors. 'Races and Immigrants' and 'Newer Ideals of Peace' proved the favorites among our books." The Corinth, Mississippi, Chautauquans, members of a manufacturing community of about seven thousand, reported ten enthusiastic members who had especially enjoyed the articles on American Painting, Mr. Brooks' "Signs of Progress," and the Science articles. "I notice," said Pendragon, referring to a collection of reports, "that many of the circles were especially attracted to the closing chapters of Mr. Brooks' series. If we cannot peer into the future ourselves, we seem to appreciate any far-seeing critic who can discover gleams of hope on the horizon."

"We certainly have found all the books interesting and helpful," commented Miss Holmes, the Secretary of the Ruskin Circle of Red Bank, N. J. "We always have been a live circle and the

American year has especially appealed to us so that scarcely anyone has failed to prepare the work assigned. We have our programs typewritten, as you see from this specimen, and we have many wide-awake discussions. We expect next year to exceed all our past efforts!"

"The Land of the Kaiser and its little neighbor Holland will certainly afford opportunity for researches of the most entertaining character," rejoined Pendragon. "I can assure every Chautauquan of a program of unusual quality for the Modern European Year."

"We have already laid our plans quite carefully for next year," said the delegate from the Gunsaulus Circle of Kansas City, Kansas. "We mean to specialize in the Circle upon the Dutch series and the Modern European Literature, reading the other books at home so that all regular members may come out even at the end of the year. In this way we can give very particular attention to certain parts of the course which attract us especially, while we shall get the benefit of the historic background which we are to study by ourselves."

"Ours is a Kansas farming country," explained a member from Burr Oak. "We have had no immigrant population to study and our circle consists of just four members. But we call ourselves 'The Big Four Chautauquans,' and we talk of adding more next year. There is another large literary circle here, but we felt that the Chautauqua plan supplied our needs better and decided to stay by the Class of 1911! Two of our members are clerks, one a compositor and one a teacher. We are all so busy that we feared we couldn't find time for all the work, but have been surprised ourselves at the amount accomplished. We have had weekly meetings, done all the required readings, followed some of the Round Table suggestions and aside from the regular work, we have had eight special exercises: 1. A History of our Town. 2. Debate on the influence of Hamilton and Jefferson. 3. Map Review of Europe, especially the countries sending us immigrants. 4. Reports of life in Southern Italy. 5. History of the Initiative and Referendum. 6. Readings from American Poets. 7. Description of Ellis Island by a visitor from New York City. 8. Pictures of negro conditions as seen by one of our own number."

"Everybody seems to be busy," commented a member from Milwaukee, "whether he or she lives in a large or a small town. These 'Big Four Chautauquans' evidently felt that the C. L. S. C. was really worth while and they've found it so. I think that's the whole secret of Chautauqua Circles. The course isn't meant to be an easy-chair affair or a chance to make embroidery while somebody else reads to you. It means concentration of your

powers upon a subject worth thinking about—it has certainly helped to stimulate my wits."

Will you hear from another Kansas Circle?" queried a member from Blue Rapids. "We are new and of course we feel our newness, but the course has been well worth while. We have no immigrants in our town, which is a manufacturing place of about two thousand. Farming and stock raising goes on in the country all round about us. I fancy we are a typical circle. Some have had college advantages and others not and our ages range from twenty to sixty-seven. We have twelve members and you may expect to see us in line early next year."

"After what the Milwaukee member has said it would seem rather superfluous to remark that an Illinois farmer's wife is a very busy person most of the year! But I shall venture it, nevertheless," and the speaker glanced cheerfully over the array of delegates representing many different walks in life. "Our Circle is in Lindenwood, Illinois," she continued, "and as our village boasts only one hundred and twenty-five inhabitants, we have to be content with our private libraries for reference books. Our community is mainly of English or New England descent with many German immigrants and Miss Addams' book gave us material for much interesting discussion. All of our fifteen members are enrolled at Chautauqua."

"We've been reported before this year," said the Robert Browning delegate from Warren, Ohio, "but do let us just mention our closing banquet. I think you would all have been glad to come. I'm sure you would have been most welcome if you could have been squeezed in! As it was, there were fifty-five of us. We started our circle with eleven members seven years ago and the help we have all gained from the course of study and associations of the circle can't be measured. I can't begin to report the toasts at our banquet for it would not be doing justice to them, but some of the good things which we hope to see in Warren—public play grounds, a day nursery, a Y. M. C. A., a new railroad station, etc., were foreshadowed and the end is not yet. Our sense of civic responsibility has been quickened this year by our American studies."

"Apropos of banquets," said Pendragon, "I think the delegate from Beatrice, Nebraska, has some recent history to report." "We are quite persuaded of the value of the banquet as a stage in the life history of a Chautauqua Circle," responded the member from Beatrice. "Our regular circle held its fourteenth this year, and no pains were spared to make it expressive of American year sentiments. The place cards were decorated with hand-painted Colonial dames and gentlemen, and the Tennyson Class flower, the red rose,

was much in evidence. The toasts surveyed the influence of our circle upon our intellectual life, our social life and upon our city. We toasted the graduates of '08 and our alumni. We looked backward and forward. And all of the things that we wanted to say and didn't were happily summed up in the final speech 'Just nothing —everything—home if anything!' I can assure you we are all ready for next year's work. I must also report the eighth annual banquet of the S. H. G. The club is in a very prosperous condition, both in numbers and interest. You may like to see this little hand-painted program of our banquet introduced by the owl, bird of wisdom! This year we devoted the time almost wholly to the study of Shakespeare. Only two plays, 'Julius Cæsar' and 'Antony and Cleopatra,' have been taken up, but it has been done in a very thorough manner. Members of the circle have been assigned the different characters and have kept them till the completion of the study of the play. Much attention has been given to the historical setting and at the close there has been a special meeting with character sketches and discussions on historical facts and the poet's interpretation. Altogether we may say that Chautauqua is strongly entrenched in Beatrice throughout the year."

"The circle at Falconer, New York, must also be included among the successful holders of banquets," commented Pendragon as he looked over some recent reports. "They have just held their second annual celebration with fifteen active members, six of whom were graduates. The '08's were especially honored by the table decorations, red roses, and hand-painted place cards with pictures of Tennyson. The original titles of the toasts will arouse your curiosity: Rosemary, A Woman's Reason, No's and Beaux, Pleiades. The growing strength of the graduates has led to a call for an Alumni association which will doubtless be organized.

"It is delightful to see," he continued, "how the passion for knowledge can take complete possession of a Chautauqua Circle. This newspaper clipping reveals the fact that the circle of Bowling Green, Ohio, at their June picnic at Fort Meigs, required every member to give a three-minute talk on the principal points of interest in and around Fort Meigs! It reminds one of the breakfasts of the famous 'Peterkins' where, you remember, the children discussed the various countries from which the different viands were secured."

"And now our last report must be from that admirable circle, the 'Pierians' of Stillwater, Minnesota. This circle is one of our oldest. It numbers eighteen years this summer and its conditions of work as many of you know, are unique, for it is a part of the educational program of the prison at Stillwater. It has some particular privileges. It is entirely self-governing and the members

work out programs which show great ingenuity. Naturally its membership is a shitfing one and the greatest credit is due to the 'long time' men, many of whom have in turn imparted a stability to the organization which has perpetuated it to the great benefit of many members who have found it an open door to a new and interesting world of ideas. You must notice this printed program of the First Quarterly Meeting. If you could follow in detail the list of papers submitted you would realize how varied and interesting the programs are. Current questions are discussed, individuals give personal reminiscences, humorous members add their quota to the general variety, and many who make their first appearance with great timidity, gain confidence and under the friendly advice of the critic make distinct progress in the expression of their ideas. The last meeting in June was a particularly memorable one, for two members of the circle had, for some time, been preparing to debate the relative merits of railroads and water craft in their beneficial influence upon the United States. Interest in the debate grew very keen as the day approached and the champions gave a really fine exhibition of their powers. The Prison *Mirror* commenting upon it, said: 'The debate was a decided success and a credit to the two members engaged in it. We also feel safe in saying that it was keenly enjoyed by the Pierians, and that each believes that the debaters have occasion to feel proud of their accomplishment.'

"In closing let me say that it is evident from numerous letters received that many of the circles have given careful thought to the letter in which Chautauqua Institution has asked for their criticism upon the current year's course. I think you would all enjoy looking these over were it possible, and seeing the large number of points of view possible in such an organization. The suggestions will be most helpful and if each circle does not find the particular improvement made which it may have suggested, be assured that it is only because some counter influence more compelling for the present at least stands in the way."

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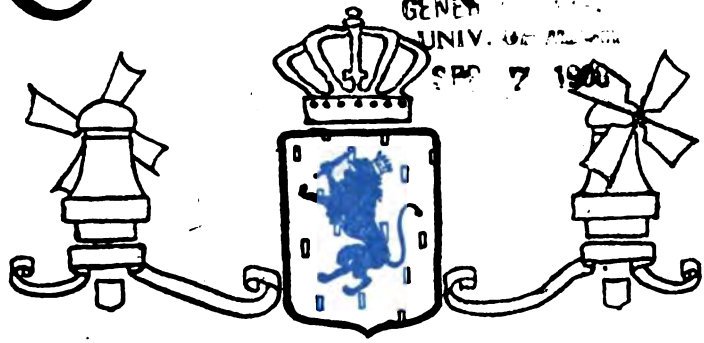

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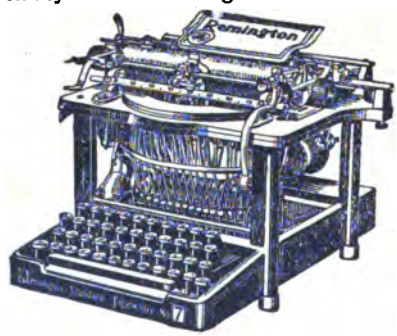

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"The Little Princess," by Moreelse. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.
(See "Dutch Art and Artists.")

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Vol. 52 SEPTEMBER, 1908. No. 1.

IN one respect the present presidential campaign is unique and unprecedented. There is to be full publicity as regards campaign contributions, though the law does not require it. Congress failed to enact a bill providing for the publication of lists of contributors and amounts by national campaign committees, and the Republican convention rejected a publicity plank that was proposed by the Wisconsin delegation. However, Mr. Taft has been an advocate of publicity and has directed that the New York state law be followed by the Republican committee, whose headquarters are in that state, regardless of any question of its technical applicability to the case. The treasurer of the committee, Mr. Sheldon, has announced that, in accordance with that law, an account will be published after the November election.

On the other hand, Mr. Bryan and his managers have announced and put in effect a system of publicity "before" the election. Only late contributions will be accounted for after that event: all others will be made known to the people at the time of their receipt by the campaign treasurer and his aids.

These developments mark a great step forward in our politics. For years all upright citizens have deplored the elements of waste, extravagance, secrecy and corruption, or fear and suspicion of corruption, in our campaigns. In local contests the practice of "gentlemen's agreements" between

managers has come into vogue, the object of such agreements being to lessen expense and prevent abuse and corruption. In national politics, apparently, a new departure has been made. Elections will be regarded more and more as public affairs, and they will be determined by arguments and appeals to fact and reason, and not by noise and spectacular demonstrations. Expenses will be regulated and restricted, and public accounting will limit them to absolutely legitimate and proper methods of influencing voters—printing of documents, hiring of halls, correspondence, etc. The first step has been taken, and others will follow.

As to contributions from corporations, not many seemed to be aware at the outset of the campaign that a law already existed prohibiting and severely penalizing such contributions. Only individuals are now legally able to contribute to national campaigns; corporations are forbidden to do so. Scandalous misuse of stockholders' money, the bribing of two or more sets of campaign managers "impartially" and at the same time, and like evils caused a demand for the act in question, and it was passed early in 1907. To some politicians this act proved a revelation, but it will help to make the campaign clean and legitimate.

The Issues and the Personalities

As the presidential campaign progresses it is more and more widely realized that each of the great parties has put its best foot forward this year. Candid Democratic observers are admitting that Mr. Taft is a strong candidate who is displaying much ability and tact in meeting the problems of the contest. Independent and fair Republican newspapers are admitting that in Mr. Bryan the Democrats have the natural and logical candidate for the presidency. Neither party started out with a mistake; neither underestimates the qualities of the other's presidential ticket.

Mr. Bryan secured his nomination in spite of opposition from politicians and machines, and without the aid of money or patronage. Those who bitterly attacked him in former

years are bitterly attacking him now; to them he is still the dangerous radical, the demagogue, the maker of phrases. They would have brought about his defeat in the convention had not an overwhelming majority of the Democratic voters demanded his selection as standard-bearer, and had not the other candidates in the party declined and faded into a mere shadowy existence. Mr. Bryan leads the Democrats once more because his ideas and proposals are popular—as popular as are those of the President with the great majority of the Republicans. Mr. Taft is the Republican candidate because he is pledged to continue the reform policies of the present administration; Mr. Bryan is the Democratic leader because he is identified with an advanced and radical program. In each party the progressive wing is "on top," and the conservatives who are demanding "a rest," the cessation of agitation for reform, have had to subside and submit.

The Democratic platform is more radical than the Republican. It was intended to be so, and Mr. Bryan and his co-workers in the campaign are hoping on that account to attract and win over Republican radicals and ardent Rooseveltians. The issue as it is shaping itself is framed by many as follows: Granting the need of further political, economic and social reform, of continued warfare against evils and abuses, which candidate is the more likely to prove the consistent and bold champion of the cause of progress and reform?

A study of the two platforms shows that on many subjects the parties are in accord. Several planks in each are different from the corresponding ones in the other in mere phraseology or in minor details. This is true of the planks dealing with the navy, civil service, liberal pensions, conservation of natural resources, prevention of land frauds, improvement of water ways, etc. On the questions of the tariff, trust control, railroad regulation, labor, the currency, the Philippines, bank deposits and taxation, not to name minor topics, the Denver platform may be said to join issue

with that of the Republicans. The Democrats incorporated some planks which a Republican minority, following the President, insisted on but failed to secure at Chicago. They declared for direct popular election of federal senators, a physical valuation of railroads with a view to scientific rate regulation, full publicity for campaign contributions. They declared for the extermination, instead of the control, of private monopoly, for placing all trust-manipulated goods on the free list, for reducing tariff duties to a revenue basis as rapidly as possible, for emergency notes issued by the government rather than by the banks, for an income tax, for an immediate announcement of intention to give the Filipinos independence, for the guaranteeing of private deposits in the national banks under a system similar to that now in force in Oklahoma, for a strong law fixing upon employers liability for accidents to their employes, for an eight-hour day on government work, and for limitations upon the issuance of injunctions after such a manner that no court could issue an injunction in an industrial dispute if no injunction were possible in a similar case affecting other interests than those of labor and capital.

On all issues except Philippine independence and "colonial" imperialism the differences in the respective planks are thus differences of degree. The Democrats are more radical than the Republicans but less radical than they were four and eight years ago, while the Republicans are more radical than before, though not as radical as the militant reformers wished the party to be.

The prospects are for a quieter and more reasonable campaign, for less denunciation and more argument; for "less heat and more light." Many editors and citizens are pleading for a rational campaign, one free from abuse, personalities, invective, in the interests of political honesty as well as in those of commerce and reviving prosperity. Men of affairs feel that in spite of politics business should steadily improve, since the issues of the campaign are neither new nor dangerous, and since the success of neither candidate

would spell a break with present policies and sudden departures.

There will be more harmony in the Democratic party than in the previous three elections, but in the East the Bryan ticket still has few newspaper supporters. Independents are leaning toward Mr. Taft but critical and vigorous in their comments on the situation. Both sets of leaders and managers admit that hard work is ahead of them and that there will be a lively and determined fight, especially in the West, which is to be the battle ground this year. All save one or two of the so-called doubtful states are in the West.

The Famous "Oil Case" Reversed

The reversal by the federal Circuit Court at Chicago of the decision of Judge Landis in the notable case of the United States vs. the Standard Oil Company of Indiana, one of the constituents of the Standard Oil trust, has legal as well as political aspects. The appellate tribunal severely criticised Judge Landis, alleging the he abused his discretion in imposing the stupendous $29,000,000 fine; that he arbitrarily computed the alleged offences of the defendant, making the number of cars in which oil was transported at unlawful rates the number of offenses punishable each by the maximum fine; and that he misinterpreted the law in holding that shippers must investigates rates instead of accepting those quoted by carriers and make sure that they are fair and lawful. It strongly intimated that Judge Landis had himself disregarded the law in seeking to punish the larger corporation, that was not before him as a party, for the sins of the smaller corporation, the legal defendant. In turn the appellate court is severely arraigned in many newspapers and by lawyers and laymen for alleged injustice to Judge Landis, for misquoting his words and misstating his position. The whole issue of "criticism of the courts" has

been revived, and all admit that the great case will figure as a factor in the campaign.

It is unfortunate that under the law as it stands the government has no right to appeal from the Circuit to the Supreme Court on the issues of law involved in the reversal. An act was passed by the Fifty-ninth Congress giving the government a limited right to appeal in criminal cases, but it does not embrace the class of cases to which the one in question belongs.

Ultimately, however, the Supreme Court will have the facts and issues before it, and it will determine whether Judge Landis or Judges Grosscup, Baker, and Seaman adopted the correct view of the commerce and anti-rebate or preference law as to the duties of shippers with regard to rates quoted to them, as to the proper method of computing offences, as to the limit of discretion in imposing fines, and as to the propriety of going outside the record of a case and finding out the affiliations, assets and character of the defendants with the idea of making the law and the general facts harmonize.

Until the highest court speaks opinion will honestly differ on the merits of the case and the soundness of the Landis decision. But there is no reason to doubt the integrity, the earnestness, the independence of either court. The case is undoubtedly full of novel and difficult points.

The Prohibition Ticket and Platform

The American prohibition movement, as we have had occasion to say before, has in recent years received impetus and encouragement from many new quarters. In the South remarkable gains have been made for and by prohibition under local option and state laws. Hundreds of thousands who vote as Republicans or Democrats have enlisted in the campaign against the saloon. The area of prohibition in the South and West is amazingly large, and while the con-

sumption of liquor shows an increase instead of a diminution for the country at large, the gains spoken of are very real. Even the liquor trade is alarmed and beginning to show earnest interest in reforming the saloon and the resort associated with vice and disorder.

At the national convention of the Prohibitionists, which was held at Columbus, O., in the latter part of July, the speakers dwelt with pride and satisfaction on the progress of their cause, if not of their party organization. A presidential ticket was nominated—Eugene W. Chafin of Illinois for President, and Aaron S. Watkins of Ohio for Vice President—and a platform was adopted that many newspapers have praised as a model of brevity, sense and lucidity. The whole platform may be reproduced here, as it shows where the Prohibitionists stand with regard to other issues of the day besides the issue that separates and distinguishes them from the other parties. The party favors:

The submission by Congress to the several states of an amendment to the federal Constitution prohibiting the manufacture, sale, importation, exportation or transportation of alcoholic liquors for beverage purposes.

The immediate prohibition of the liquor traffic for beverage purposes in the District of Columbia, in the territories and all places over which the national government has jurisdiction, the repeal of the internal revenue tax on alcoholic liquors and the prohibition of the interstate traffic there.

The election of the United States Senators by direct vote of the people.

Equitable graduated income and inheritance taxes.

The establishment of postal savings banks and the guaranty of deposits in banks.

The regulation of all corporations doing an interstate commerce business.

The creation of a permanent tariff commission.

The strict enforcement of law, instead of the official tolerance and practical license of the social evil which prevails in many of our cities, with its unspeakable traffic in girls.

Uniform marriage and divorce laws.

An equitable and constitutional employers' liability act.

Court review of Postoffice Department decisions.

The prohibition of child labor in mines, workshops and factories.

Legislation basing suffrage only upon intelligence and ability to read and write the English language.

The preservation of the mineral and forest resources of the country and the improvement of the highways and byways.

Here, as in the platform of the bigger parties, the spirit and tendencies of the time are strikingly illustrated and expressed. The positions taken on social, economic, and political questions are decidedly advanced.

The Prohibitionists do not claim that they will elect their ticket, but they do assert that the stress of tendency is with them and that success is almost within their grasp in the sense that prohibition will soon embrace the whole country.

In 1904 the Prohibition presidential vote was 258,536, and in 1900 it was 208,914; not in all the states, however, were there separate Prohibition tickets of presidential electors. This year the total vote is expected to be much heavier. But the growth and influence of the movement will not, in any event, be gauged by the vote. The indirect forces and factors working for prohibition will not be represented in it.

Progress in National Education

That Americans "have a passion for education," elementary, secondary and high has become a familiar saying the world over. Nowhere is education more liberally or lavishly endowed, and nowhere do the people tax themselves more cheerfully to provide free and sufficient education to all children, as well as to adult aliens who desire to acquire the rudiments of English and of other fundamental studies. For the latter there are night schools, special classes and settlement classes. For the children of the poor there are vacation schools where pleasure and recreation are combined with practical and manual instruction. As to the higher nontechnical education some statistics were recently published by Dr. Elmer E. Brown, federal commissioner of education, that have been widely commented upon. It appears that 622 institutions of higher learning are available in the country. Of these, seventeen universities and colleges have 1,000 or more male undergraduates each, four

have over 900 men students each, and 114 have 200 or more such undergraduates.

In the establishment of elementary and high schools the progress is steady and rapid, and the same is true of the professional schools. Yet there are very serious and vital problems before American educators. They have to do, not with quantity but with quality. New conditions create new needs; ideas are changing; neglected aspects of education are challenging attention. Is there proper adaptation of education to life in general and to industrial life in particular? Do the schools discharge their function efficiently? Do they omit things that should be included and unduly emphasize other things? Have they the right ideals and the right methods?

At the recent annual convention of the American Education Association these questions were vigorously discussed and certain defects in our system of public education were pointed out. The resolutions that were adopted are comprehensive and give one a fair idea of the whole situation. They note progress, recognize ripening and unsettled questions, and indicate needed reforms in several directions. We reproduce the more important parts of the resolutions because they largely carry their own moral:

Fully realizing that trained and skilled labor is a primary essential to the industrial and commercial welfare of the country, we cordially indorse the establishment by municipal boards of education of trade schools, industrial schools and evening continuation schools.

We recommend the subordination of highly diversified and overburdened courses of study in the grades to a thorough drill in essential subjects; ill considered experiments and indiscriminate methodizing should be abandoned.

We assert that the individuality of the pupil should be carefully considered, to the end that he may be instructed in the light of his limitations and capacity.

We earnestly recommend to boards of education, principals and teachers the continuous training of pupils in morals and in business and professional ethics, to the end that the coming generation of men of affairs may have a well developed abhorrence of unfair dealing and discrimination.

The bureau of education at Washington should be preserved in its integrity and the dignity of its position maintained and increased. It should receive at the hands of Congress such recognition

and such appreciation as will enable it not only to employ all expert assistants necessary, but also to publish in convenient and usable form the results of investigations; thus making that department a source of information and advice as will be most helpful to the people in conducting their campaigns of education.

The National Education Association notes with approval that the qualifications demanded of teachers in the public schools are increasing annually.

It is the duty of the state to provide for the education of every child within its borders. To this end the child labor and truancy laws should be so harmonized that the education of the child, not its labor, is made the chief concern.

The National Education Association indorses the increase of the school buildings for free vacation schools and for free evening schools and lecture courses for adults. We approve the use of school grounds for play grounds for the benefit of the children in the crowded districts during summer.

Local taxation, supplemented by state taxation, presents the best means for the support of the public schools.

The National Education Association observes with great satisfaction the tendency of cities and towns to replace large school communities or boards by small boards, which determine general policies, but intrust all executive functions to salaried experts.

We cannot too often repeat that close, intelligent, judicious supervision is necessary for all grades of schools.

The rapid establishment of rural high schools and the consolidation of rural district schools are most gratifying evidences of the progress of education.

The National Education Association wishes to record its approval of the increasing appreciation among educators of the fact that the building of character is the real aim of the schools.

The National Education Association wishes to congratulate the secondary schools and colleges of the country that are making an effort to remove the taint of professionalism and other abuses that have crept into students' sports.

We hope for such a change of public sentiment as will permit and encourage the reading and study of the English Bible.

School buildings and school grounds should be planned and decorated so as to serve as effective agencies for education in matters of taste.

The highest ethical standards of conduct and of speech should be insisted on among teachers.

Many important questions are adverted to in this declaration, but special emphasis is now properly laid on moral culture and industrial education. It is felt that the schools are far from doing all that they should and can do toward making good citizens, by inspiring high ideals and inculcating right standards, and toward fitting the pupils for the practical work of industrial and commercial life. In these directions great improvements are needful, and they are surely com-

ing. Beginnings have been made in several communities, and earnest discussion will insure progress at a reasonably rapid rate.

The School and the "Chasm"

In connection with the series of current educational questions, the chasm created in many homes by our present system of public school training challenges attention. Miss Jane Addams, the head of Hull-House and leader in social reform, is practically alone in directing thought to this matter. The work of the elementary schools in facilitating and promoting the assimilation of aliens, of "Americanizing" their young, is of course essential and invaluable. Without this work the heavy immigration of the last twenty years might have "swamped" us; at any rate, American political and public life would not be what it is, and our dangers and difficulties would be increased in every way. Yet this process of assimilation or Americanization is not without serious drawbacks, as Miss Addams has forcibly and admirably said in addresses and articles.

In thousands of foreign homes it creates a division, a moral chasm, between the children and the parents. The former are learning English and acquiring American ways; they are proud to call themselves Americans; they take pains to divest themselves of every feature that reminds them or others of their foreign birth or of the birth of their parents. They come to despise the traditions of the "old country," to be ashamed of the ways, customs, ideas of their families. The parents resent this and regard the "Americanization" of the children as by no means an unmixed blessing. At any rate, their own Americanization is retarded. What is worse, the discipline and peace and morals of the home are destroyed, and in their place we see dissension, antipathy, discord.

Miss Addams appeals to the educators to discourage such tendencies by teaching foreign children to respect na-

tionality and the culture of the old world, to understand that much that is foreign is good, noble and worth preserving, and that contempt for parents, even if they are ignorant and different, is not American. She also urges teachers to visit foreign homes, acquire some knowledge of the conditions and environment of the children put in their charge, and counteract everything that makes for the undesirable side of a too rapid assimilation—lack of reverence, vulgarity, insolence, imitation of the worst instead of the best.

These appeals and ideas have been strongly indorsed in the thoughtful newspapers, and they certainly point to a vital problem.

The Douma, Tolstoy, and the Russian Situation

Count Tolstoy, in a vigorous and impassioned philippic, recently denounced the policy of the Stolypin cabinet as "government by execution." Farcical trials, death sentences by the score, hanging of men, women, and minors, encouragement of black-hundred violence and disorder, bureaucratic tyranny and resistance to all reform, chronic famine and starvation for millions—these are the things, Tolstoy said, that are called law and order in Russia. He for one must repudiate and condemn them before the whole civilized world.

Many less uncompromising reformers than Tolstoy, the apostle of Christian Anarchism and passive resistance to state and organized church, are very pessimistic regarding the situation and prospects in Russia. The third douma, it is true, has not been dissolved; after a long and busy session the Tzar prorogued it until fall while expressing in private audience to its president hearty appreciation of its spirit, policy and course. It is generally expected that the present douma will complete its legal term of five years and accomplish something for Russian constitutionalism and progress. Its mere existence, of course, is a great benefit, for it insures discussion and criticism of official abuses and

certain reforms in administration and finance. It must be acknowledged, too, that on several occasions the majority of the third douma, though moderate and only mildly liberal, ventured boldly to attack the irresponsible control of army and naval affairs by the grand dukes, the inefficient and obstructive staff of the admiralty, and the provincial military despots. It also rejected the demand of the government for an appropriation for four new war ships—on the ground that the service had not been reformed and that the ships would serve no useful purpose at this time. Still, the fact remains that the douma neglected the vital and burning questions of Russia—agrarian reform, justice, freedom of speech and press, etc. The budget occupied most of its time, and it voted for heavy "defence" expenditures in the Pacific territories, for a new domestic loan to cover the deficit for the year, for an "all Russian" Amur railroad to Vladivostok, in addition to the road that traverses Manchuria, which is to be improved and largely reconstructed, and for other governmental measures. The government has no particular reason to be dissatisfied with its record to date, though it is gradually developing courage and confidence.

The Russian constitutionalists find some comfort, however, in the reflection that the reaction has been checked, that even the fanatical monarchists no longer hope to destroy the douma as an institution, and that certain small reforms are being conceded by the government. Progress will be very slow, and much injustice, suffering and cruelty will have to be endured, but the tendency, at any rate, is upward and forward. Not everything has been lost, and the Revolution will yet bear fruit.

Reaction of Persia, and European Responsibility

The Shah of Persia has tried a *coup d'etat* and succeeded. He has dismissed the national assembly, and destroyed the buildings in which it was housed. For a time

civil war was threatened all over the country, but the troops of the Shah, led by a Russian general, were so completely victorious at Teheran, the capital, that the provinces lost heart and submitted. In the capital the war between the constitutionalists and the reactionaries was savage and merciless, and tales of cruelty and torture, of wholesale executions and bombardments of private houses owned by liberal leaders and members of the assembly, have shocked the western world.

The causes of the counter-revolution are not clearly understood. It is known, however, that the Shah, though he has repeatedly sworn to uphold and respect the present constitution, which is less than a year old and which includes concessions to the throne, has never fully sympathized with the constitutional movement or cause and has on various occasions overstepped the limits of his power. There had been frequent collisions between him and his ministers, on the one hand, and the national assembly on the other. That assembly is by no means democratic, but it represents the mercantile elements, the priests, the educated citizens who have traveled abroad and a part of the aristocracy. The example of Russia has been before its eyes, and it has aimed at reform in many directions. When the final rupture came few good observers were surprised. Many at once concluded that the end of the whole parliamentary or constitutional experiment had come in Persia, which, they said, was not really ripe for any form of representative government and could not be other than a typical Oriental despotism.

Certainly the Shah's proclamation and explanation to his people and to the world indicated an absurd conception of constitutionalism. They were full of bitter complaints against "irresponsible" societies and clubs that "meddle" in governmental affairs, and against disturbers and agitators who had plotted against the throne and impudently demanded reform of a radical character. These private societies had to be suppressed with a firm hand, for government must remain

in the hands of trained and competent persons, the Shah continued. Unfortunately, he admitted, the national assembly supported them and was willing to use and be used by them; hence the war of extermination had to be extended to the assembly itself. These are strange notions, even for Persia, and they throw little light on the situation.

However, the Shah has ordered another election of members of the national assembly and has promised to respect the essentials of the constitution. He has decided to establish an upper chamber, which he has no right to do under the constitution, but after the *coup d'etat* this is a minor usurpation.

It is believed that England and Russia have prevented the Shah from overthrowing the new regime entirely. Their treaty, regulating their respective interests and spheres in Persia, renders coöperation between them a possible policy; if the treaty and understanding had not been reached the Persian internal disorders might have led to intervention, friction and war between England and Russia. But it is also said that the understanding has hampered England in Persia and injured the cause of liberty and constitutionalism. Possibly the Shah and the reactionary cliques have relied on Russian support and have felt themselves safe from English displeasure and resentment. Thus Europe may be responsible for evil and reaction in Persia, and a diplomatic victory for peace in Europe may entail a defeat for liberalism in the Orient. This, however, is to a certain extent speculative. It is still hoped that the counter-revolution in Persia may not be complete and crushing.

I. The Present European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World

By Victor S. Yarros

SUCH phrases as "the balance of power," the "concert of Europe," the "European Equilibrium" and the like have become thoroughly familiar even to the casual reader of the political news published in the daily and weekly press. The same casual reader knows that the powers of the world form various alliances, understandings, combinations among themselves for various purposes, either aggressive or defensive. Today, it is generally supposed and understood, the peace of the world rests upon and is secured by a number of such alliances and understandings. Any change in the present grouping of, or relations between, the great powers has a bearing on or constitutes a phase of what is called "world-politics," and may conceivably disturb the equilibrium.

Yet things constantly happen in the political and diplomatic spheres of activity, and every year, not to say every month, brings its crop of incidents, developments, events, and crises. There is no stability in international relations, for many problems are still unsolved in Europe, Asia, America, and there are, unfortunately, many grounds for suspicion, jealousy, friction, and discord between the leading powers. The great German empire builder and diplomat, Bismarck, says in his "Reflections and Reminiscences:"

"International policy is a fluid element which, under certain conditions, will solidify, but, on change of atmos-

King Edward of England, who has done much to Promote good Feeling between European Powers.

Victor Emanuel III., King of Italy.

Kaiser Wilhelm II., the War Lord of Germany.

Chancellor von Buelow of Germany, one of the greatest Diplomats in Europe.

Emperor Franz Joseph of Austro-Hungary.

Sir Edward Grey, who aided in concluding Anglo-Russian Treaty.

phere, reverts to its original condition."

The important fact to be recognized is that nations even more than individuals and corporations, are governed by their fundamental needs and interests. Dynastic ties, personal and family friendships, individual temperaments are not wholly without influence on international policy, but their influence is limited and transitory. In the long run, geographical, historical, physical, commercial, organic conditions determine the foreign policy of a nation—its ambitions, aspirations, efforts and measures. Hence, when any real need or vital interest dictates a revision or even a reversal of policy, all opposition of a sentimental nature vanishes as if by magic.

M. Delcassé, formerly French Foreign Minister.

A glance at the "world-situation" at this juncture reveals certain cardinal features. We have a condition of fairly stable equilibrium. All the great powers are professing an anxious desire to maintain peace. All are earnestly disclaiming agressive designs. All are favoring straightforwardness, candor, and "sweet reasonableness" in international relations. Whether the Emperor of Germany visits England, or the King of Great Britain and Ireland visits France, or a meeting is arranged between the Tzar and his Teutonic or Austro-Hungarian fellow-sovereign, the message, formal or informal, which the world receives as the result of the affair is a message of peace and cordiality. Yet Europe has well been described as an armed camp. Military and naval expenditures are steadily mounting; the suggestion of even partial disarmament, or limitation of budgets for so-called defence, has remained a vague aspiration, a dream.

An able writer, Mr. J. Holland Rose, closes a book on "The Development of the European Nations, 1870-1900," with these depressing sentences:

The Tzar of Russia, a Leader in the Movement for International Peace.

"What was true of the middle of the eighteenth century is trebly true of the dawn of the twentieth century. Viewing the matter broadly, we must admit that the present state of armed truce combines many of the worst evils of war and of an emasculating torpor. It is neither a state of rest which builds up the fabric of humanity, nor a time of heroic endeavor such as sometimes mitigates the evils of war. The individual is crushed by a sense of helplessness as he gazes at the armed millions on all sides of him. . . . From these weltering masses, engaged in piling up work upon work against some remote contingency, there arises and will still more arise a dull, confused, questioning murmur, whether the whips of fear which drive them on are not wielded by some malignant fury masquerading in the garb of peace—whether the whole gigantic effort is not a hideous nightmare, a game with men's lives doomed to end in stalemate."

This is a good description of the sort of "balance" which Europe is boasting of today; and yet it is a fact of tremendous significance that since the war of 1870 Germany "has not fired a shot in anger" (to use the expression of a brilliant journalist) and that since the Russo-Turkish conflict of 1877 Europe has not been the scene of any hostilities. Provocations and opportunities have not been lacking, but the peace has been kept, friendly relations have been strengthened, and safeguards multiplied.

Among these safeguards are the alliances and understandings which exist today in Europe. Some of them are recent and full of vitality; others, it is held by competent students, are mere survivals, whose significance, once great, has been impaired by the march of events. Still, so long as they remain in effect, they are factors that must be reckoned with.

In brief, it may be said that the European balance is supported by the following combinations, named in chronological order:

The Triple Alliance, the parties to which are Germany, Austro-Hungary, and Italy.

The Dual Alliance of Russia and France.

The Anglo-Japanese Alliance.

The Anglo-French "entente cordiale" (cordial understanding).

The Algeciras Treaty in regard to Morocco.

The Anglo-Russian understanding.

There are also in effect various partial and limited agreements and special treaties between France and Italy, France and Spain, Russia and Japan, Russia and Austria, Japan and China, and most, if not all of these, have an indirect bearing on the situation in Europe, even where they ostensibly and in terms have reference to interests in Asia or Africa. Space will not permit a consideration of these minor agreements and arrangements, and our attention must be directed to the above mentioned major factors.

To understand fully the existing alliances and groupings of the leading powers, it would be necessary to know much more than actually is known concerning the secret history of European diplomacy. In diplomacy language is still used quite as much to conceal as to express thought and there are, besides, many points in the origin, evolution, and real purposes of the alliances and understandings that have not been cleared up. In general, however, it is undoubtedly true that the present European situation and "balance" must be traced to the momentous Franco-Prussian war of 1870, the found-

ing of the German Empire as a direct consequence of the issue of that war, and the dangers which Italy, Russia, and England saw in those developments, as well as in their respective internal conditions.

The Triple Alliance was originally a dual alliance between Germany and Austro-Hungary. And that dual alliance at first had reference only to defensive operations in the event of an attack on either of the parties by Russia. It was negotiated by Bismarck in 1879, who explained it, according to his secretary, Busch, as follows: When we (Germany and Austria) are united with 2,000,000 soldiers back to back, the Russians with their nihilism will doubtless think twice before disturbing the peace." The terms of this treaty were not officially published until 1888, and in substance, they provided for these contingencies: If either of the allies should be attacked by Russia, the other must come to its aid with all its forces. If the attack should be made by any other power, the ally must merely observe perfect neutrality.

Italy joined the alliance in 1882, as a result of her dissatisfaction with the seizure of Tunis by France in the previous year. Italy herself had had her eyes on Tunis, and its annexation by the French, with the tacit consent of Germany, proved to be the cause of a long and unnatural estrangement between the two Latin nations. The terms of the treaty whereby the Triple Alliance was formed have never been authoritatively given to the world, but the general understanding is that the three powers reciprocally guaranteed the possession of their respective territories, agreed to resist attack on any one of them, and stipulated the amount of aid to be given by each in case of hostilities with France or Russia or both powers.

The Triple Alliance did not prevent Bismarck from concluding a secret treaty with Russia, which compact, when its existence had been revealed, led to an outcry and a denunciation of the Teutonic Chancellor for duplicity and bad faith. By that agreement, which lapsed with the fall of Bismarck, Germany and Russia bound themselves to observe

neutrality in case either of them should be attacked by a third power.

It is clear, then, that the object of these treaties was the preservation of peace and the prevention of "surprises" and aggressions. But the Triple Alliance initiated the great modern tendency toward the much-vaunted "equilibrium" of Europe. Its formation, in connection with other occurrences to be mentioned, caused France, Russia, and England great anxiety. It is even believed that in 1886 France and Russia tried to break up that combination by offering inducements to Italy to withdraw from it and seek territorial advantages at the expense of Austria.

If the policy of Russia, in the seventies of the last century was considered dangerous to the peace of Europe, so dangerous as to necessitate a powerful alliance, it is equally true that the policy of Germany under the Bismarck regime as Chancellor of the Empire, was considered full of danger to France, England, Russia, and the peace of the world generally. It is this danger which prompted France and Russia—the one a republic and the other an autocracy—to lay aside many differences, incompatibilities of temper and deep-seated suspicions and conclude a dual alliance. This latter alliance was also a somewhat gradual development.

The friendlier feelings between Russia and France at first manifested themselves in arrangements for placing Russian loans in Paris. The first of these loans was quietly negotiated in 1888. But among the decisive influences which finally brought about the complete understanding may be named what is known among diplomatic writers as "the affair of 1875."

France, by that time, had fully and marvelously recovered from the disaster of the "terrible year," 1870. She was again confident, prosperous, and strong. In the year named, she voted a large increase of her armed forces, while her politicians and newspapers were openly advocating preparations for the eventual reconquest of Alsace and Lorraine, the provinces she had lost to Germany. Her people

were not reconciled, as they are now, to what was called the dismemberment of France by the ruthless Bismarck. In order to prevent an attack or a war of revenge by France, the military party of Germany urged on the emperor to assume the offensive and by an immediate attack reduce France to impotence. Various hints, it appears, were thrown out by the Teutonic ambassadors to that effect, and great apprehension was excited. The Paris correspondent of the London *Times,* de Blowitz, was authorized, indeed asked by the French premier, to publish the facts. He did so, and produced a sensation in every European capital. The Tzar, to whom the French government dispatched a special envoy with documents, gave the latter assurance that he would interfere to prevent an unprovoked war on France. Queen Victoria and the British government also evinced genuine concern and used their good offices to end the tension and the crisis. These efforts were successful and as already stated, the "scare" served to bring Russia and France together.

Visits of the two fleets were interchanged in 1891 and finally the Tzar overcame his distrust of republicanism and the alliance was concluded. The treaty embodying the terms of this alliance has never been published but, according to Mr. Henry Norman, M. P., author of "All the Russias," it provides that "if either nation is attacked, the other will come to its assistance with the whole of its forces, and that peace shall only be concluded in concert and by agreement between the two."

Both the Triple and Dual Alliances have been renewed a number of times and are in effect today, though, owing to various developments, their real significance has changed. The relations between Italy and France are again friendly and have been so since 1901, when "an understanding" was arrived at between them in regard to mutual interests in the Mediterranean Sea and in Africa. In 1903 a treaty of arbitration was signed by them, and the Italian statesmen frankly avowed that the considerations which had led their country

to enter into partnership with Germany and Austria had lost much of their weight. On the other hand, the relations of Germany and Russia have greatly improved; during the Russo-Japanese war Emperor William displayed considerable good-will toward the St. Petersburg government, and since then visits have been exchanged and cordial greetings rather ostentatiously published. The Emperor has called the Tzar "Admiral of the Pacific" while applying to himself the title "Admiral of the Atlantic." As to England, her whole situation has been changed, thanks to King Edward's diplomacy and tact, and thanks, too, to a realization that her foreign policy for some decades had been narrow and unsafe.

Early in 1902 a second dual alliance was formed—between England and Japan. The former had boasted of her "splendid isolation," referring to the lack of connection with either group of the great European powers. But she had secretly felt that the isolation was by no means as magnificent as it could be made to appear to the unsophisticated. There were troublesome questions in the near East, in the far East, in Egypt, and in Africa (to some of which we shall refer in our second article) which needed delicate handling. The war with the Transvaal Boers had aroused extreme bitterness against England in Continental Europe, and in Germany a press campaign of singular violence had been carried on, representing Great Britain as the natural enemy of the advancing Teutonic Empire. It was, therefore, a bold stroke to enter into an alliance with a yellow, Asiatic, non-Christian power. The announcement of the Anglo-Japanese agreement was received with amazement—in some quarters with scorn and contempt. But the event, all agree, has justified it, though of late there have been some hints from high British quarters that it may not be renewed upon its expiration, owing to the threatened revival of a serious anti-European propaganda in Asia.

The text of this treaty of alliance shows that the contracting powers had in view the maintenance of the inde-

pendence and integrity of China and Korea, the preservation of the "open door" (equality of commercial rights in the Far East), and the safeguarding of peace. Each party, however, recognized the special interests of the other in China or Korea, and proceeded to pledge itself as follows:

"If either Great Britain or Japan, in defence of their respective interests, should become involved in war with another power, the other high contracting party will maintain a strict neutrality, and use its efforts to prevent other powers from joining in hostilities against its ally. If, in the above event, any other power or powers should join in hostilities against that ally, the other high contracting party will come to its assistance, and will conduct the war in common, and make peace in mutual agreement with it."

It is this alliance which, according to general opinion, "localized" the Russo-Japanese War. But for it, France might have joined in the conflict over Manchuria and Korea, and had that happened, no one knows where the struggle would have ended.

Even the alliance with Japan, however, did not reassure the statesmen of England and there was profound satisfaction when, the wounds inflicted by the sympathy of continental Europe for the Boers having healed, it was found possible for England to come to a comprehensive understanding with France. The credit for this momentous agreement, comprising three distinct conventions and settling old and disturbing controversies, belongs to M. Delcassé, the then minister of foreign affairs in France, whose whole policy was enlightened and pacific (though Germany thought it was designated to "isolate" *her* and draw Italy, Spain, and England closer and closer to France), and to Lord Lansdowne, Britain's foreign minister under Salisbury and Balfour.

The conventions referred to dealt respectively (1) with West Africa and Newfoundland; (2) with Egypt and Morocco; and (3) with Spain, Madagascar, and the New Hebrides. Passing over the minor and perhaps too technical features of these treaties, it is sufficient to say that their chief importance lies in the recognition of French special and paramount interests in Morocco by England, and in

the reciprocal recognition by France of the status quo in Egypt. France had never before acknowledged the legitimacy of England's rule over Egypt and had, from time to time, reminded the London government of the explicit pledge of Gladstone to evacuate that country (still nominally subject to Turkey). The understanding put an end to all possible friction over the occupation and its consequences. On the other hand, England declared expressly that, as the master of Algeria and Tunis, France properly claimed the right to maintain order in Morocco and use her influence to improve the financial, administrative, and military position of that misgoverned country.

To the average man this Morocco feature of the agreement meant, simply, that so far as England is concerned, France might annex the Moorish kingdom and end the anarchical and dangerous conditions that are chronic there. This, however, was not the "correct official view," though Germany was disposed to side with the downright average man. The Emperor resented the pretensions of the French in Morocco, visited Tangiers in person, made a vigorous little speech to German residents, and asserted that he would defend their commercial interests as well as those of their fellow subjects at home. There had been no talk of injuring or discriminating against German interests in Morocco (other interests she did not claim) but the general comment on the visit and speech was that the Kaiser had intended to serve notice on England and France that he could not be ignored in any matter affecting the European balance or the disposition of territory in Africa, Asia, or elsewhere. For a time, all Europe was filled with apprehension—there was even talk of war. But all ended happily.

The Morocco question had become acute, and internal disorder tended to aggravate the difficulty. In order to relieve the situation, a conference of the powers was called at Algeciras in 1906 for the ostensible purpose of definitely settling the status of Morocco and the relation of France, Spain, and the other nations thereto. All the leading powers,

including the United States, were represented at the conference and an agreement was reached after many delays. Germany at first refused to acknowledge the peculiar and paramount interest of France in Morocco, but at last she yielded. The Algeciras Treaty provided for better policing of the ports of Morocco under French and Spanish instructors and officers, for suppression of contraband in arms, for improved customs duties and sources of revenue, and for the "open door," or economic equality, for the powers trading in the kingdom.

As a matter of fact, as will be shown in a later paper, the conference only postponed the settlement of the ultimate Moroccan question. Germany gained nothing beyond this delay, and France lost nothing, because she was not ready, in any event, to become actually the master of that kingdom; she knew that the conditions were not right for a *coup* similar to that of the occupation of Tunis. She had other questions on her hands and was willing to wait as regards Morocco. But Germany's apparent aggressiveness alarmed Europe and was resented by Italy, her ally. It led to some pointed and plain remarks about the "hollowness" of the Triple Alliance, and Emperor William himself manifested his displeasure in a characteristic utterance which Italy construed as a charge of ingratitude and disloyalty against her. On the whole, the Moroccan incident is considered to have been a blunder, especially in view of its effect on the native rulers and the more fanatical tribesmen, who have threatened a "holy war" on all Europeans and Christians.

If, however, the Algerciras Treaty must be considered insincere and illusory from a "long run" point of view, more favorable judgment is distinctly invited by the Anglo-Russian understanding and treaty, in which, notwithstanding some criticisms, most diplomatic experts see a real triumph for peace and good-will, a long step toward permanent peace. That England and Russia could come together at all and find their interests to be by no means hopelessly in con-

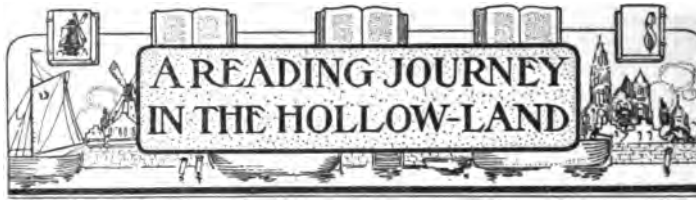
flict was a surprise to many. Which power made the larger concessions is an open and not very important question. But there is ground for hope that the provisional agreement will be in due time replaced by a permanent one.

The Anglo-Russian Convention, negotiated by Sir Edward Grey and M. Isvalski, the foreign ministers of the two "contracting parties," was signed in the fall of last year. It embraces three sets of questions—those relating to Persia, those relating to Afghanistan, and those relating to Tibet. In substance, the treaty gives England a "sphere of influence" and financial control in the south, and Russia a similar sphere in the north of Persia, a debt-ridden country that is nominally independent and supposed to be passing from an autocratic to a constitutional regime. As to Tibet, both parties agreed to respect China's suzerain rights over it and pledged themselves not to seek concessions and franchises in that mysterious land. Afghanistan, Russia declared to be outside her sphere and influence, and agreed to deal with it through British officials.

British India "breathed freely" again after the ratification of this treaty, for the "invasion of India" menace had been removed. The liberal-minded elements of both countries welcomed the treaty as a splendid achievement.

But it would be rash to assert that any one of the existing alliances or all of them can be regarded as an absolute pledge of peace. There are possibilities of friction and conflict in many directions. The really effective guaranties of amity and concord are moral and industrial. The occasional regrouping of the powers is to be expected; "understandings" will come and go; but education, national interest, the demand for great social reforms, the difficulty of financing needless wars,—these are a constantly increasing influence.

In another article we shall glance at the international problems that are still unsolved and that from time to time give rise to "incidents" and diplomatic excitement—problems whose solutions may involve momentous readjustment, political and territorial.



Part I. Its Origin.*

By George Wharton Edwards

THE first inhabitants of Holland came from Germany, and adopted as their new home the island of Batavia, a long strip of land lying within the forked estuary of the Rhine. So brave a race were they that the body guards of the Roman Emperors were drawn from their ranks. It is said that Friesland and the northern districts were likewise peopled with these German migrants but they differed in national character and admitted no allegiance to the Romans, then paramount throughout northwest Europe, and became known as the free Frisians. Under Charlemagne's powerful rule (A. D. 800) the provinces, including what is now Belgium, were united. After the conquest of the Belgians, the Batavians became the allies of Rome; later on they disappeared. Fifty years later, by the treaty of Verdun, the country was divided. Batavia and Friesland were allotted to Germany, while Dukes and Counts each ruling, yet subject to the German Emperors, were appointed to the provinces which now became principalities. Trade routes were established to distant parts of the world; law rather than might made itself manifest in various charters from princes to people. At the end of the thirteenth century, the rulers are found presiding over the provincial estates, marking the beginning of constitutional government. At this period came the great inundation when the North Sea burst through the dunes and rolled in over the low lying lands, uniting with an inland lake. The ocean

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engulfed more than a thousand Frisian villages and formed the present Zuider Zee. Philip, Duke of Burgundy, surnamed "The Good," dispossessed his young cousin, Jacquelin, of her rightful heritage of Hainault, Zeeland, and North and South Holland. Soon after he acquired Luxemburg and assumed lordship over Friesland as a matter of course. He established at Bruges (1429) the Order of the Golden Fleece; in 1467 he was succeeded by his son, Charles the Bold, whose dominant object was to make his dukedom a kingdom. He ruined his country financially, and died ignominiously. His daughter, the Lady Mary, inherited the vast but impoverished realm. They lie buried side by side in magnificent gilded, enameled, and marble tombs in the Cathedral at Bruges.

Louis the XI. of France, another member of the Golden Fleece, earned the laurels of the order by seizing Burgundy. It was now that Lady Mary, to secure the loyal adhesion of her subjects, granted them "the Great Privilege," the magna charta of Holland. In 1493, her husband, the Archiduke Maximilian of Austria, inherited his father's throne. Notice the accretion of thrones and principalities. Maximilian's son, Philip the Fair, heir to enormous territory, married the Princess of Castile and Aragon, and thus added Spain to the family domain. Philip's son was Charles the Fifth, King of Spain, Emperor of Germany, Emperor of Austria, King of the Netherlands, Duke of Burgundy, and monarch practically of half the known world.

Under the Spanish rule, the inhabitants of Holland became restive and finally, forcibly resented its tyranny and robbery, following which Charles V. confiscated the Great Privilege and all municipal rights. The people demurred. Punishment swiftly followed, and Charles scourged the people into submission with rods of iron, and squandered their blood and treasure in European wars. He now sought to exterminate heresy by executions and failed. In 1555, wearied with wars and the cares of state, he abdicated in

favor of his son, Philip II., a gloomy monarch of fanatical tendencies, assassinator of William, Prince of Orange; the strongest maintainer of the Inquisition with its tens of thousands of slaughtered victims and the deliberate midnight murderer of his own son, Don Carlos. Holland's darkest hour was at hand. Motley vividly portrays the hell let loose upon the kingdom. With the assistance of his servile minister, Granville, the Inquisition did its work. The King retired to Spain but quartered his Spanish troops throughout the States, to the impoverishment and despair of the people. The King's sister, Margaret of Parma, was installed in the Netherlands as regent. At this distressful period, three champions of liberty, namely, William, Prince of Orange, Count Egmont, a brilliant general, and Count Horn, urged the King to redress the people's wrongs. They claimed (1) the withdrawal of the troops, (2) the removal of the inquisition, (3) the restoration of the people's right through the states' general to vote the sums of money demanded by the King. The King now retired both Margaret of Parma and Granville in favor of the Duke of Alva and the garrisons were doubled by an army sent from Spain to suppress the insurrection and root out the heretics. With callous brutality, Alva invited Egmont and Horn to a banquet; though urged by William of Orange to beware of treachery, they went, were seized by Alva's soldiers, and notwithstanding their rank and services to Philip, were executed. By beheading, hanging, burning, and torturing on the rack, the Duke of Alva put to death some one thousand persons while many thousands were driven out of the country. The insurrection then became a war of independence, under the leadership of William of Orange. Eventually, the Dutch Protestants were successful, and several of the provinces, renouncing their allegiance to Spain, proclaimed the Prince of Orange, Stadtholder, and by a treaty at Utrecht (1579) laid the foundation of the Dutch republic.

William the Silent, who is said to have earned the

"soubriquet" because he controlled himself and made no comment when Henry II., had arranged a general massacre of Protestants throughout France and the Netherlands, saved by his prudence at any rate for a time, the threatened disaster. He was Charles V.'s favorite ambassador. He was born 1533 and died in 1584. Although a staunch Catholic and supporter of the King, William repeatedly protested to him against Alva's atrocities but without the slightest effect. The Council of Blood was now established, and incredible as it is now to believe, sentence of death was passed upon the whole of the inhabitants of the Netherlands. (February 16, 1568.) Philip confirmed the edict, and ordered its immediate execution. Thus Alva's victims could be executed without even the formality of a mock trial. (See Motley.) William of Orange now took active steps to oppose Alva, but too utterly cowed to assist, the Dutch populace remained passive while the Prince spent his own fortune on foreign troops. Despite the valor of his brothers Louis and John, defeats followed. The beggars of the sea, a body of nobles banded together to resist Alva, met with some success. Prince William's own States, Zeeland and Holland, on land alone, showed determination to resist. The massacre of St. Bartholomew only stimulated the desires of Philip and Alva. Cities whose inhabitants defied the Spaniards were besieged. Surrender on promise of mercy nearly always resulted in the inhabitants being put to the sword, as at Naarden and Haarlem. (See Motley.) The siege of Leiden, however, brought a sudden check to the Spaniards, for when the city was at its last gasp, William, from his fever stricken couch, ordered the cutting of the dykes, whereby the country was flooded. His fleet of war ships being in readiness, he sailed up to the very walls of the city. Through years of toil and privation Prince William held to his trust, the freeing of his country. Affectionately called Father William, he matched his intellect against the cleverest men of his age, and with his enthusiasm kept alive the waning spark of

national patriotism. His is a solitary and splendid figure. When in 1581 the Holland States finally renounced their allegiance to Spain, Prince William was elected Stadtholder, after he had emphatically refused any higher title. On July 10, 1584, an obscure hireling of Philip II., tempted by the large reward offered by the King, gained access and secreted himself near the principal stairway of Prince William's house. Armed with a pistol, he fired several poisoned bullets at the Prince, two of which took effect.* Thus passed the spirit of this great man, his last words as he fell being a prayer, "God save this unhappy country." The murderer was promptly executed, his flesh being torn from his body by hot pincers, but his parents, on claiming the blood money from Philip II., were at once exalted and granted patents of nobility. William's son, Maurice, was then elected Stadtholder, and ruled until 1625 amid a period of increasing prosperity. The republic grew and flourished in spite of the theological disputes which were rife, and in consequence of which the pensionary, John Van Oldenbarneveld, was put to death by Maurice. The war with Spain was vigorously carried on. The Dutch admirals, De Ruyter and Tromp, added immensely to the power and reputation of Holland. With commercial prosperity, the population rapidly increased; both on land and sea the Dutch defeated their former masters. The merchant fleets navigated the world and founded the Dutch colonies. On the death of Maurice, his brother, Frederick Henry (1645-1647), succeeded as Stadtholder and the prosperity of the country reached its zenith. The commerce of Holland was renowned the world over and the Dutch navigators, painters, and scientists, were in their full glory. By the peace of Westphalia, the great work of William the Silent was completed. Europe acknowledged the independence of the provinces and William II., son of Frederick, came to the throne, surviving his father by only a few years. In consequence of dissensions breaking out, John De Witt was

*See Library Shelf in this magazine.

elected Grand Pensionary. In 1652, the first naval war with England was declared, in consequence of the navigation act passed by the English parliament which was intended to promote the navigation of Britain and to strike a blow at the naval power of the Dutch. Admirals Tromp and De Ruyter came to the fore and the English fleet suffered more than one heavy reverse. At the outbreak of the second war in 1664, De Ruyter succeeded in sailing up the river Thames as far as Chatham. Louis XIV. of France, cast covetous eyes on the Netherlands, alleging a right to them on behalf of his Spanish wife, Maria Theresa, but he was checkmated by the triple alliance, formed by John De Witt between England, Holland's quondam enemy, and Sweden and Holland to resist that very attack. De Witt, however, fell a victim to the vengeance of the people who accused him of harboring designs against the Stadtholder, William III, who was now at the head of the provinces. In 1672, England went to war with Holland again, and in the same year the triple alliance having been dissolved, Louis of France took possession of certain of the Dutch provinces, and De Witt, with his brother, was killed by the infuriated Dutch mob at the Hague. The young Prince of Orange then became Stadtholder, and in 1688 was crowned William III, King of England. His cousin, Prince John William of Friesland, was elected President of the Republic and waged war with England against France. The war lasted for about eight years, terminating in the treaty of Utrecht, 1713. John's son, William IV., followed as Stadtholder and again war with England for naval supremacy ensued. In 1781, Holland lost most of her colonies and the French Republic took possession of Holland in 1795. The brother of Napoleon, Louis Bonaparte, was made king in 1805, and five years later Bonaparte formally annexed Holland under the pretext that it was an alluvion of French rivers. Mention should be made of the memorable feat of the French general, Pichegru, in capturing the frozen up Dutch fleet by bringing his cavalry over the ice. The flight of the

Stadtholder, William V., to England brought into existence the Batavian Republic, which with R. J. Schimmelpennick as President acquired a brief notoriety. Louis Bonaparte, as King of Holland, occupied the throne for five years, during which time Napoleon's "Continental System," recoiling upon his own head, brought commercial ruin to Holland. Louis resigned the crown in 1810 and Napoleon incorporated Holland with France. After his crushing defeat at Leipsic, the Dutch, with the help of Russia and Prussia, the allies, and England, swept the French over the border, and peace dawned again over the distressful country after Napoleon's overthrow at Waterloo. The famous Lion Monument on the battlefield is erected over the spot where the Prince of Orange was wounded while leading his Nassau regiment to the charge.

The restoration of the House of Orange resulted in the acceptance of the crown (1813) by William, the son of the exiled Stadtholder, and in 1815, by the Vienna treaty, Belgium was added to the kingdom, and the Prince of Orange, under the title of William I. was crowned king of the Netherlands. Dissensions, the result of incompatibility, soon followed between the Dutch and the Belgians, the latter complaining of the assumption of supremacy by the Dutch and furthermore objecting to the compulsory use of Dutch language, replacing Flemish and the official French. Holland, being Protestant and loyally attached to the House of Orange, while Belgium too long subjugated to Spain and France, being anti-Orange and Roman Catholic, separation resulted. In 1830, the European powers, fearing further complications, prevailed upon Holland to accept the severance. After ten years of unrest, the King abdicated and William II. ruled over Holland with the Duchy of Luxemburg added under the Vienna treaty, from 1840 to 1849, when he was succeeded by William III. Princess Emma of Waldeck and Pyrmont (sister of the Duchess of Albany) and consort of William III, acted as regent at her husband's death and during the minority of her daughter, Wil-

The Emperor Charlemagne.

Philip the Good.

Maximilian I.

Martin Harpertzoon Tromp (1597-1653), famous Dutch Admiral.

The Emperor Charles V.

Count of Hoorne (1520-1568).

Count Egmont (1522-1568).

R. J. Schimmelpennick, onetime President of the Batavian Republic.

The Late Prince Henry of Holland.

Philip II. of Spain.

The Duke of Alva (Fernando Alvarez de Toledo, 1508-1582).

William of Orange, known as William "The Silent."

The Brothers DeWitt.

"Negotiations with Spain during the Twelve Years' Truce." (1609-1621). Allegorical and Satirical Painting (1614) by A. P. Van de Venne, in the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam. (The Catholics and Protestants are competing in the Work of saving Souls.)

The Trial of John V. Oldenbarneveld. Satirical Painting by Cornelius Saftleven, in the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam. (The Jury and Judge Represented as Animals.)

National Monument at The Hague, Commemorating the Dutch Independence Achieved in 1813.

Queen Wilhelmina, the present Ruler of Holland.

Harbor at Delfshaven, Holland, from which the Pilgrim Fathers Set Sail for America, July 22, 1620.

Harbor Scene and Church, Delfshaven, near Rotterdam.

Tablet to the Memory of the Rev. John Robinson, Pastor of the Pilgrim Fathers. In the Church at Leiden, unveiled July, 1891.

House at Leiden in which the Rev. John Robinson, who prompted the Pilgrim Fathers to settle New England, "Lived, Taught and Died"

Interior of Church, Delfshaven, where the Pilgrim Fathers held their last prayer meeting before sailing.

helmina. Her regency is held in affectionate remembrance by the people of Holland. Wilhelmina was born on August 31, 1880, and was crowned in 1898 amid the rejoicings of the entire nation. As Queen she received the homage due to her exalted rank but it is as Princess of Orange and in her lace cap as a Frieslander, descendant of that race of patriots who dedicated their fortunes and themselves to the salvation of Holland that she reigns in the hearts of her devoted subjects. In 1901 her Majesty was married to Henry, Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, on whom she was permitted to confer the title of Prince Henry of the Netherlands. One should note the fact that it was because of her exalted rank she was forced by the laws to propose marriage to the Duke. It has been both urged and denied that it was a love match but as a matter of fact, as far as one may judge, the attitude of the Hollander towards the consort is one of tolerance.

These historical details are really necessary to the proper understanding of the papers which follow as showing the origin of these remarkable people, and the great influence which they have wielded over civilization. Indeed it would surprise some readers to learn that the best of the laws of both Great Britain and America are derived from the Netherlands, and that the two great elements (see "The Puritan in Holland and America," by Douglas Campbell) which have contributed to make America what it is, are: one, the civilization of ancient Rome, with its genius for government and its instinct for justice and equal rights; the other, the strong wild blood of the Germanic race with its passion for individual freedom, which has given its nerve, strength, and energy to modern Europe. The first of these elements was utterly extinguished in England by the Anglo-Saxon conquest, while the feudal system, afterwards came in to rob the Germanic conquerors of many of their early ideas regarding civil liberty. One country alone, Holland, was largely free from this devastation and this blight. There the civilization of Rome was never extinguished, and the

feudal system took but feeble root. The people preserved more purely than any others their Germanic ideas and institutions but engrafted on them the arts, the learning, and the laws derived from communication with civilized and civilizing Italy. To the patriot, to the lover of civil and religious liberty, as well to the student of art and science in any land, the history of this Republic and country, must always have a peculiar charm. But, apart from its general features, this history is so interwoven with that of England and America that anyone concerned with the past of either of these countries will find it a subject of unfailing interest. When modern Englishmen set out to write the history of their country, they cross the channel and describe the Angles and the Saxons in their early home upon the continent. That home was so near to the Netherlands that the people of Holland and the conquerors of Britain spoke substantially the same language, and were almost of one blood. To the Englishman, thinking only of the greatness of his own land, this original relationship may seem sufficient honor for a tiny fragment of the earth's surface not as large as Switzerland, but it is only the first chapter of the story. For hundreds of years in later times, and until long after the settlement of America, the Netherlands stood as the guide and instructor of England in almost everything which has made her materially great. When the Reformation came, in which northwestern Europe was new born, it was the Netherlands which led the van, and for eighty years waged the war which disenthralled the souls of men. Out of that conflict, shared by thousands of heroic Englishmen, but in which England as a nation hardly had a place, Puritanism was evolved—the Puritanism which gave its triumph to the Netherland Republic, and has shaped the character of the English-speaking race.

In time, England came to hate the benefactor to whom she owed so much; thus after the Restoration of the Stuarts, and still more after the Tory reaction which followed the Revolution of 1688, the political writers about the court

habitually ridiculed the Dutchmen for virtues which they could not understand (see Roger's "Story of Holland").

The Republican Hollander deemed the attentions of king or noble to his wife or daughter a disgrace. The courtiers about Charles II viewed this subject differently and regarded the Dutchman as ill-mannered for his want of taste. Added to this was the Hollander's respect for the private rights of all classes; his devotion to art and learning; his love of fair dealing in personal and in public matters; his industry, frugality; and, finally, his universal toleration. No one could deny the Dutchman's courage, for they were among the boldest soldiers and sailors that the world has ever seen; but they were not gentlemen from the aristocratic point of view. Sir William Temple, one of the most elegant and accomplished gentlemen, at the court of Charles II, being sent as ambassador to the Hague, related some of his experiences, among others the following, which illustrates the authority of woman in Holland. Dining one day with the chief burgomaster of Amsterdam and having a severe cold, he noticed that every time he spat on the floor while at table a tight handsome wench who stood in a corner holding a cloth, got down on her knees and wiped it up. Seeing this, he turned to his host and apologized for the trouble which he gave, receiving the jocular response, "It is well for you that my wife is not at home, for she would have turned you out of the house for soiling her floor, although you are the English ambassador." ("The Puritan in Holland, England and America," by Douglas Campbell.)

For art, for science, and deep scholarship, no other country could be compared with Holland in her palmy days. But Holland owed preëminence in these departments, not to an aristocracy, nor even to a monied class whose inherited wealth led them to abstain from business. The men who sustained her painters and musicians, who fostered science and broad learning, were the plain burghers, merchants, and manufacturers in the cities, men whom Queen Elizabeth called "base mechanics," who worked themselves,

and by example or by precept taught that labor alone is honorable.

James Geddes in his "John De Witt" relates an incident which will show how mathematics were cultivated in the Netherlands. In 1617, a young French soldier, serving in the Dutch army, was passing through the streets of Breda. A crowd was gathered on the corner and he pushed forward to learn the cause of the excitement. Its members were all studying a paper, posted on the wall, and talking about its contents. Not understanding the language, he asked a by-stander to translate it into French or Latin. The paper contained an abstruse mathematical problem, which in this way had been submitted to the public for solution. The soldier obtained his translation, went to his quarters, and a few days later sent in the correct answer, signed "Descartes." This was the introduction to the world of the greatest philosopher and mathematician of the age, whose transcendant ability was at once recognized in Holland.

The Hollander has ever been incorruptible. Never in war or peace, though Spain was lavish of promises and a master of corruption, was native Hollander bought with gold. When in 1608 the Spanish ambassadors were on their way to negotiate a treaty at the Hague, they saw eight or ten persons land from a little boat, and sitting down on the grass, make a meal of bread, cheese, and beer. "Who are these travelers?" said the Spaniards to the peasant. "They are the deputies from the State," he answered, "our sovereign lords and masters." "Then we must make peace," they cried; "these are not men to be conquered."

It was Holland, also, which carefully and wisely encouraged and maintained the freedom of trade, as may be seen from an incident which occurred so far back as the reign of Edward I of England. That monarch, in a letter addressed to Robert, Earl of Flanders, states that he has learned of an active intercourse carried on between the Scotch and the Flemings; and as the former had taken

part with Robert Bruce, who was in rebellion against him and excommunicated by the Pope, he begged that the Earl would put a stop to this intercourse and exclude the Scotch from his dominion. The Earl's answer was full of respect for the English king whom he desired to please, but he said frankly, as to the main question: "We must not conceal it from your Majesty that our country of Flanders is open to all the world, where every person finds a free admission. Nor can we take away this privilege from persons concerned in commerce without bringing ruin and destruction upon our country. If the Scotch go to our ports and our subjects go to theirs, it is neither the intention of ourselves or our subjects to encourage them in their error, but only to carry on our traffic without taking any part with them." This was always the policy of the Netherland States and the Dutch Republic.

In an article on Leiden University by Prof. W. T. Hewett in *Harper's Magazine* for March, 1881, Prof. Hewett himself, a student at this famous university, in common with every intelligent observer who has lived in Holland, was much struck with the similarity between the Dutch and the American modes of thought. He says, "The Dutch mind is more like the American in its method of thought than is that of any other nation of the continent. There is the same intensity of feeling on all religious questions, the same keen practical genius. The purpose of the Hollander is direct. The Hollander understands American and republican institutions, and their true foundations in the intelligence and self-control of the people. I have always felt sure of being understood when speaking with an educated Hollander, whether discussing church and state or our political questions. He could rightly estimate the real and unreal dangers which attend democratic governments, as our English cousins are not always in the habit of doing."

We view with just pride our charitable institutions, our soldiers' homes, our orphan asylums, and our great and mag-

nificently endowed hospitals, but we should not forget that in all this great and noble work, republican Holland set us the example three centuries ago.

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I. Frans Hals and the Portrait.

By George Breed Zug

Assistant Professor in the History of Art, University of Chicago.

WHEN compared with Italian painting and its numerous artists of the fourteenth, and even thirteenth century, Dutch painting seems distinctly modern. For it is not until the seventeenth century that we find a real, genuine Dutch art in the history of painting. Artists of Dutch birth had existed in the two preceding centuries, but they were, to judge from their few remaining works, not different from the artists of neighboring Flanders. All, Dutch and Flemish alike, seem to have been painting religious subjects,—the Roman Catholic church has always been a liberal patron of artists,—in a miniature-like way, with very small strokes of the brush and a thin layer of paint, with great timidity in drawing the human body, and with an overabundance of details. But all of this changes rapidly after the Peace of Utrecht in 1579 with its religious and political freedom for the seven Northern Provinces. And now that Holland, a free and Protestant nation, was born, there could and did arise at once a national, a Dutch art wholly distinct from Flemish art. The Flemings are temperamentally inclined toward the French in sprightliness, and in imaginativeness, the Dutch, phlegmatic and serious, are more like the Germans. The Flemings remained Roman Catholic and continued to paint large altar pieces with a wealth of color and movement and invention. The Dutch, in whose churches such productions dared no longer find a place, derived their delight from the artistic treatment of themselves and their

daily life. And as a result no country has produced such a body of paintings showing in an intimate way the very life of its people at work and at play. Even the religious picture, so far as it remained became domesticated, became a part of the house furnishings. This seventeenth century Dutch school of painting is, after that of Italy, the greatest of history. For more than a generation before Frans Hals there were scores of distinguished artists working successfully in the various cities of Holland. Some historians of art history treat the subject of Dutch painting by cities. There seems, however, a special advantage in discussing the paintings of this period by subjects treating the portrait as represented by Hals and his contemporaries, then the painters of domestic scenes, of landscapes, and of animals. This plan will be followed in this series of articles.

A portrait painter of today is inclined to assert that portrait painting is the most difficult of the arts. Whereas each branch of art is difficult for the conscientious artist, let us see what are the special problems of the portraitist. Of course the artist's aim is always to create something beautiful, therefore a painter of madonnas and saints, as well as the painter of domestic scenes and of animals, must so select and arrange his materials that the result will be a harmonious and beautiful unity. The great Italians brought this unity about chiefly by line and pattern, the Dutch painters chiefly by light and by shade. A portrait then should not only represent the outline of the person's features, but the head, the body, the arms, and the legs should be so arranged within the limits of the frame that beauty results.

The earlier portraitists in Italy and in the Low Countries made their problem as simple as possible. At first they introduced only the head and shoulders. Later they added the hands as an aid in the interpretation of character. Whole generations later they turned the head or the body to give variety, and, lastly they introduced accessories which threw, as it were, a sidelight on the character of the sitter by suggesting his occupation. The merchant, pen in hand, sits

Statue of Frans Hals (1584-1666), in Haarlem.

before his ledger; the tailor with his shears is about to cut the cloth spread out on his table; the money lender has his scales and his money bags beside him.

Paul Moreelse, the painter of the beautiful little princess of our frontispiece, is taken as representative of the host of distinguished portraitists who came just before Hals. Moreelse was born in Utrecht in 1571; he was a pupil of Mierevelt of Delft, but after his apprenticeship he returned to his native city where he was busily occupied the rest of his life. His princess is typical of the precise workmanship of the best masters of the period. A word may here be said as to the way in which these masters look at their subjects. When about to paint a portrait they select and arrange their material as all artists must, but they seem to let their eyes wander from head to foot of the sitter in order to then reproduce each detail with utmost precision. What could be better than the careful rendering of the lace collar and cuffs, and the gold chain of the princess? For that kind of painting nothing could be more skilful. It was in this sort of painting that that greater master of Germany, Hans Holbein, expressed his way of seeing nature. But this multiplication of detail is as primitive a way of representing a person as the careful drawing of ten thousand leaves is a primitive way of representing foliage. For ten thousand leaves do not necessarily make a tree. These early painters painted not according to appearances but according to knowledge. Moreelse by careful observation was able to see all these details of costume one at a time and to reproduce them all together. When we look at a person, however, we are not conscious of all the buttons on a dress or all the links in a chain; we look at the face, and such details of costume are all but lost in the corner of the eye.

Frans Hals was perhaps the first painter who painted not according to the way he knew that the sitter looked, but in the way he appeared to the eye and to the mind. Better than anyone before him he treated his portraits in a large way. He left out small distracting details and focussed

"The Laughing Cavalier." By Frans Hals. In the Wallace Collection, London.

"Nurse and Child." By Frans Hals. In the Berlin Museum.
Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Co., New York.

"The Gipsy Girl." By Frans Hals. In the Louvre.
Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Co., New York.

"Portrait of a Man." By Frans Hals. In the Collection of Mr. Charles L. Hutchinson, Chicago.

"The Serenade." By Judith Leyster. In the Six Collection, Amsterdam.

"St. Joris Shooting Company." 1627. By Frans Hals. In the Town Hall, Haarlem.

"Officers of St. Adriaen's Shooting Guild." 1633. By Frans Hals. In the Town Hall, Haarlem.

"The Drinker." By Judith Leyster. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.

attention on the face and the pose of his subject. This new, "broad" manner of seeing was, then, carried further by Rembrandt and the great Spanish painter, Velasquez. But Hals deserves the credit of first discovering and applying it to portraiture. Hals is often called the first of the moderns, for many of the leading artists of today paint in this "broad" manner. Hals' way of painting differs also from that of his predecessors. They put on the paint with such delicate care that the surface is smooth and somewhat lacking in expression. You cannot see the brush strokes of Moreelse or of Holbein. Hals, on the other hand, puts the paint on the canvas in broad and lengthy strokes which looked at near at hand seem confusing, but which are effective at a distance. It is in just this mastery of the brush that Hals has never had a superior. As Mr. Kenyon Cox* suggests it is not merely the length and breadth of Hals' brush strokes which is remarkable, it is his skill and precision in making them of just such size and shape, of just such color and tone that when you stand away from his canvas you get the very impression of nature, the texture of lace or of satin, of skin or of hair, and this with a lifelikeness which is unexcelled.

This lifelikeness is important in a portrait. How many figures in pictures which we see seem posed and stiff, and without life. But the people in the pictures by Hals seem to be caught in the act of living. They are animated, breathing beings. There is a vitality about the people who look out of his paintings. Another point to be observed in portraits is the composition,—how much of the figure is placed upon the canvas and how well it occupies its place. It is also to be noticed whether the artist has succeeded in producing a personality with an individual character, and whether he has made eyes, mouth, hands, dress and accessories interpret the character of his subject.

Frans Hals was born of Dutch parents in Antwerp about 1580. He probably received only an elementary education

*Essay on Hals in "Old Masters and New."

in that city, for early in his life his parents removed to Haarlem where the boy Frans was placed in the art academy of Van Mander. Mr. Davies in his book on Hals, hazards some clever guesses as to the early training of our master, but the fact is that we know nothing certainly of the beginnings of his career. There is next to nothing to be learned either from manuscripts or pictures until the year 1616, the date of his first important picture, the banquet of the Saint Joris (Saint George) Shooting Guild. This painting proclaims its author to be a past master of the art of painting. We cannot, therefore, trace the beginning of his style in early works which resemble those of his master, as we can do, for instance, with Raphael and his master Perugino. But from 1616 until 1664, the date of his latest pictures, Hals seems to have been busily occupied in his profession, and at times an officer in certain associations. These two facts offer a sufficient refutation of the charge that Hals was an habitual drunkard, a mere sot. Surely two things which were necessary to the production of his works were clearness of vision and sureness of hand, and these could not be retained by an habitual drunkard. Hals may not always have lived wisely for he spent his last days in poverty, receiving a pittance from the city, and died in 1664. But although his poverty may have been in part of his own causing, it was not entirely so; for his art was too good for his time; masterly as it was it seems not to have been popular from the year 1645 onward.

The portrait of the officer, commonly called "The Laughing Cavalier," which is here reproduced, was apparently painted about 1624 when the master was at the height of his success. The careful painting of the lace ruff, the precision in the rendering of the details of the clothing, together with the lack of atmospheric effect show that the picture is comparatively early in the artist's career, and before he attained the broad manner of seeing and of rendering which mark his later art. Though the color is not strong, the embroidery being in low-toned orange-yellow

on a blue-grey cloth, it leaves a memory of brighter color. This no doubt is partly due to the want of atmosphere. These remarks are not intended to lessen the enjoyment of the beauty of the work, but only to place it in the master's career, for what could be better as an interpretation! How abounding in life is this healthy young officer, how expressive is his pose, and how bewitching his smile!

Another painting which shows his skill in catching the passing mood of his subject is the "Nurse and Child." The proud look of the peasant nurse, the transparent shadows on her face, and the skilful placing of her figure behind that of her charge are all as happy in their way as the pleased expression of the child, and the delicate painting of her cap, collar, and stomacher. The loving care displayed in the painting of this lace and of the golden olive brocade of the child's dress is again characteristic of Hals' early period.

Slightly broader in treatment but of about the same period is the painting of "The Gipsy Girl." Here the artist transfers to canvas not the suggestion of a smile, but the smile itself,—one is almost tempted to say the laugh. With this gay mood, the white linen, the salmon of the bodice, and the rosy tints of the face are in perfect accord. This delightful picture is one of the best of a whole group for which Hals is famous; pictures which might be called portrait studies or fancy portraits, in which he interprets the gay spirits of laughing girls, of fish-wives, of jesters, and of tipplers. Such paintings border closely on genre paintings (paintings of domestic scenes), and yet they remain portraits. They seem also to be sympathetic subjects to the rollicking, happy-go-lucky temperament of the jovial Hals.

But Hals does not confine himself to the painting of mere externals and the interpretation of passing moods. Though it must be acknowledged that he does not sound the depths of character in the profound manner of Rembrandt, still he has left some portraits of men and of women in serious-mood, portraits which seem to reflect the better and deeper side of his subject's character. Some of these

are life-size, while others are only a few inches in height, like the little Portrait of a Man owned by Mr. Charles L. Hutchinson. This man may not be a philosopher, he may not be a searcher of souls, but he is adequately represented in serious mood. Here may be seen some of our painter's best qualities; his broad manner even in small compass, a vital pose, and his skill in catching a likeness. One often doubts whether the people in Rembrandt's portraits really looked as they are represented. It is known that Rembrandt frequently dressed his sitters in strange costume and adapted their features according to his fancy. Not so with Hals; he is always a realist, he seems always to represent the very man in his habit as he lived.

In order to understand the dash and brilliancy of Hals as a painter of single portraits, one need only study his works in several public and private galleries in America; but to appreciate him as the master of large portrait groups, to understand him at his full worth one must cross the ocean and visit Haarlem. The Museum of that city possesses eight large pictures, of which five represent gatherings of the great shooting guilds, while three represent the governing bodies of public charities. The figures in these groups are all life-size and range in number from five to nineteen. These large canvasses varying in length from eight to thirteen feet, well lighted and placed at a convenient height for study, represent almost fifty years of the artist's activity. Arranged as they are in chronological order one can compare the ruddy color and sharp outlines of this first picture of 1616 with the broader treatment and blending tones of the later canvasses. Nor are these great groups mere transcripts of nature, but works of art abounding in the astonishing skill and mastery of one of the greatest of painters. These shooting companies were bodies of citizens associated for purposes of defence, a kind of militia, which did excellent service in the last forty years of the war with Spain. They frequently marched out together, they as frequently dined

thoroughly and well, and what is of particular interest to-day, the officers sometimes had their pictures painted in life-sized groups and placed in their halls of meeting. It seems that such corporation pieces were not paid for from the general fund but from the individual purse. Hence, each having paid his share, each expected equal representation. How skilfully Hals met this requirement in the arrangement of his groups! While he places each head where it can be seen plainly he arranges the whole so naturally that the spectator catches at once something of the all-pervading spirit of the good time.

In the Saint Joris group of 1627, here reproduced, he has placed two seated figures forming a group with a standing figure at the left, and has connected this with the larger group at the right by means of the ensign wth the folded flag. Here Hals has reached his accomplished style. The white ruffs, the sashes of tawny orange, red, or blue, and the fresh complexions of the men form a harmony indeed. Here too is masterly painting of black stuffs, and an atmospheric effect that aids the impression of reality. In the "Officers of Saint Adriaen's Guild," 1633, there is still more gorgeous painting of the sashes, still broader handling, and better feeling for form. Here, as always, Hals paints the hands admirably, hands which help to interpret the sitter.

Hals then, to repeat, was one of the first to paint so broadly as to give the very impression of nature. He defines form by masses of color rather than by lines, with a mastery of brush that has not been excelled, and he is one of the great colorists of the Dutch school. He excels also in such minor matters as the painting of rich blacks, in expressive gestures, and life-like poses. He has well been called the "Laureate of Laughter." As Mr. Davis says, Hals excels in depicting such obvious emotions as those "of laughter, amusement, surprise, conceit and swagger." He is not such a soul-searching portraitist as was Rembrandt, but a painter of the passing mood. For the dash-

ing portrait of external impression by means of an equally dashing technique, Hals remains unexcelled.

A story is told of a visit paid to Hals by Van Dyck. The latter was then twenty-two, Hals nineteen years his senior. As a pleasantry Van Dyck suppressed his name, announcing himself as a wealthy stranger who wished to sit for his portrait, but who had only a couple of hours to spare. Hals fell to with his usual impetuosity, and completed a portrait for the sitter's inspection in even less than the limited time, much to the satisfaction of the latter, who expressed an astonishment not altogether feigned at the speed of its execution. "Surely," said he, "painting is an easier thing than I thought. Suppose we change places and see what I can do." The exchange was made. Hals instantly detected that the person before him was no stranger to the brush. He speculated in vain as to who he might be. But when the second portrait was finished in still less time than in the first, the mystery was solved. Rushing to his guest, he clasped him in a fraternal embrace. "The man who can do that," he cried, "must be either Van Dyck or the devil!"—(From Timothy Cole's "Old Dutch and Flemish Masters.")

Of all his followers the one who came nearest to him in method and in spirit was a woman who has been called the most gifted woman painter of the whole Dutch school,—Judith Leyster. She has been recently recalled from oblivion by the researches of Hofstede de Groot. No documentary evidence of her ever having been Hals' pupil has yet been discovered, yet until 1893 her works were bought and sold as those of Hals. Her signature, a combination of the letter J and a star,—Leyster meaning lode-star, had been mistaken for Hals' cypher. She is known to have lived from about 1600-1660 at Haarlem and at Amsterdam. In the former city she was admitted to membership in the Guild of Saint Luke in 1633, and in 1638 she married the artist Jan Miense Molenaer. Her earliest known work is "The Drinker," dated 1629. It seems no great wonder that it

was long mistaken for a Hals, so much in his spirit was the young man transferred to the canvas, but the colors are brighter and not blended as fully as with Hals. "The Drinker," who smiles happily out at the beholder, is clad in a grey coat with red corded seams, and a black hat from which hangs a long red plume. A picture very similar to this one of the Rijks Museum in Amsterdam is now in the Kaiser Friedrich Museum at Berlin, but it is not so big in feeling nor in treatment. In "The Serenade" of the Six Gallery at Amsterdam the color scheme is still brighter and the use of light and shade is more pronounced. The doublet is black and green with white slashes, the trunk-hose red and black, and the mantle grey. Although akin to Hals in certain of his moods she developed a style of her own, so that she was not only twice celebrated in the rhyming chronicles of Haarlem in the first half of the seventeenth century, but a critic of today has said of her that she is "one of the few women who have done a man's work."

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Excellent art criticism will be found in the following:

Cox, Kenyon. Old Masters and New. $1.50. Also illustrated edition, $2.50.

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Van Dyke, John C. Old Dutch and Flemish Masters engraved by Timothy Cole. Good essays on Hals and others.

Davies, Gerald. S. Frans Hals (Great masters in painting

and sculpture series). 1904. Small edition $1.75. This is the best life of Hals.

DAVIES, GERALD S. Frans Hals. 1902. Large edition with added text and illustrations. $14.

In the Metropolitan Museum New York, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, and Art Institute, Chicago, may be seen original examples of the work of Hals.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

It is essential in the study of art to use illustrations. The prints published by The Bureau of University Travel, Trinity Place, Boston, afford a cheap method of illustration. There are 170 small prints of Dutch paintings. Price 80 cents per hundred. No text accompanies these prints.

The monthly publication entitled *Masters in Art* is also recommended. Each number contains ten plates with comments by well known critics and bibliography. The following Dutch painters have been treated: Rembrandt, Frans Hals, Ter Borch, Pieter de Hooch, Paul Potter, Gerard Dou, Vermeer of Delft, Jan Steen, Metsu, Ruisdael. Price 20 cents each. Address Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y.

REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS UPON THE REQUIRED READINGS WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THIS MAGAZINE.

(*End of October Required Reading,* pages 18-84.)

Assassination of William the Silent

[The following excerpts, taken from Motley's "Rise of the Dutch Republic," afford a graphic picture of the murder of William the Silent, Prince of Orange, in 1584. Balthazar, the murderer, had for seven years planned the murder of the Prince, prompted to his deed by large offers of reward from the Spaniards. How he accomplished his purpose is here set forth, together with a careful character study of the great man who freed Holland from the foreign yoke, William of Orange, one of the greatest patriots of history.]

It was Sunday morning and the bells were tolling for church. Upon leaving the house he [Balthazar] loitered about the courtyard, furtively examining the premises, so that a sergeant of halberdiers asked him why he was waiting there. Balthazar meekly replied that he was desirous of attending divine worship in the church opposite, but added, pointing to his shabby and travel-stained attire, that, without at least a new pair of shoes and stockings, he was unfit to join the congregation. Insignificant as ever, the small, pious, dusty stranger excited no suspicion in the mind of the good natured sergeant. He forthwith spoke of the wants of Gérard to an officer, by whom they were communicated to Orange himself, and the Prince instantly ordered a sum of money to be given him. Thus Balthazar obtained from William's charity what Parma's thrift had denied—a fund for carrying out his purpose!

Next morning, with the money thus procured he purchased a pair of pistols, or small carabines, from a soldier, chaffering long about the price because the vender could not supply a particular kind of chopped bullets or slugs which he desired. Before the sunset of the following day that soldier had stabbed himself to the heart, and died despairing, on hearing for what purpose the pistols had been bought.

On Tuesday, the 10th of July, 1584, at about half-past twelve, the Prince, with his wife on his arm, and followed by the ladies and gentlemen of his family, was going to the dining room. William the Silent was dressed upon that day, according to his usual custom, in very plain fashion. He wore a wide-leaved, loosely-shaped hat of dark felt, with a silken cord round the crown—such as had been worn by the Beggars in the early days of the revolt. A high ruff encircled his neck, from which also depended one of the Beggar's medals, with the motto, "*Fidèles au roy jusqu'a la besace,*" while a loose surcoat of grey frieze cloth, over a tawny leather doublet, with wide, slashed underclothes completed his costume. Gérard presented himself at the doorway and demanded a passport. The Princess, struck with the pale and agitated countenance of the man, anxiously questioned her husband concerning the stranger. The Prince carelessly observed that "it was merely a person who came for a passport," ordering, at the same time, a secretary forthwith to prepare one. The Princess, still not relieved, observed in an undertone that "she had never seen so villainous a countenance." Orange, however, not at all impressed with the appearance of Gérard, conducted himself at table with his usual cheerfulness, conversing much with the burgomaster of Leewarden, the only guest present at the family dinner, concerning the political and religious aspects of Friesland. At two o'clock the company rose from the table. The Prince led the way, intending to pass to his private apartments above. The dining-room, which was on the ground floor, opened into a little square vestibule, which communicated, through an arched passageway, with the main entrance into the court-yard. This vestibule was also directly at the foot of the wooden staircase leading to the next floor, and was scarcely six feet in width. Upon its left side, as one approached the stairway, was an obscure arch, sunk deep in the wall and completely in the shadow of the door. Behind this arch a portal opened to the narrow lane at the side of the house. The stairs themselves were com-

pletely lighted by a large window, half way up the flight. The Prince came from the dining room, and began leisurely to ascend. He had only reached the second stair when a man emerged from the sunken arch, and, standing within a foot or two of him, discharged a pistol full at his heart. Three balls entered the body, one of which, passing quite through him, struck with violence against the wall beyond. The Prince exclaimed in French, as he felt the wound, "O my God, have mercy upon my soul! O my God, have mercy upon this poor people!"

These were the last words he ever spoke, save that when his sister, Catherine of Schwartzburg, immediately afterwards asked him if he commended his soul to Jesus Christ, he faintly answered "Yes." His master of the horse, Jacob van Maldere, had caught him in his arms as the fatal shot was fired. The Prince was then placed on the stairs for an instant, when he immediately began to swoon. He was afterward laid upon a couch in the dining room, where in a few minutes he breathed his last in the arms of his wife and sister.

The murderer succeeded in making his escape through the side door, and sped swiftly up the narrow lane. He had almost reached the ramparts, from which he intended to spring into the moat, when he stumbled over a heap of rubbish. As he rose, he was seized by several pages and halberdiers, who had pursued him from the house. He had dropped his pistols upon the spot where he had committed the crime, and upon his person were found a couple of bladders provided with a piece of pipe with which he had intended to assist himself across the moat, beyond which a horse was waiting for him. He made no effort to deny his identity, but boldly avowed himself and his deed. He was brought back to the house, where he immediately underwent a preliminary examination before the city magistrates. He was afterwards subjected to excruciating tortures; for the fury against the wretch who had destroyed the Father of the country was uncontrollable, and William the Silent was

no longer alive to intercede,—as he had often done before—in behalf of those who had assailed his life.

The organization of Balthazar Gérard would furnish a subject of profound study, both for the physiologist and the metaphysician. Neither wholly a fanatic, nor entirely a ruffian, he combined the most dangerous elements of both characters. In his puny body the mean exterior enclosed considerable mental powers and accomplishments, a daring ambition, and a courage almost superhuman. Yet those qualities led him only to form upon the threshold of life a deliberate determination to achieve greatness by the assassin's trade. The rewards held out by the Ban, combining with his religious bigotry and his passion for distinction, fixed all his energies with patient concentration upon the one great purpose for which he seemed to have been born, and after seven years' preparation, he had at last fulfilled his design.

Upon being interrogated by the magistrate, he manifested neither despair nor contrition, but rather a quiet exultation. "Like David," he said, "he had slain Goliath of Gath." When falsely informed that his victim was not dead, he showed no credulity or disappointment. He had discharged three poisoned balls into the Prince's stomach, and he knew that death must have already ensued. He expressed regret, however, that the resistance of the halberdiers had prevented him from using his second pistol, and avowed that if he were a thousand leagues away he would return in order to do the deed again, if possible. He deliberately wrote a detailed confession of his crime, and of the motives and manner of its commission, taking care, however, not to implicate Parma in the transaction. After sustaining day after day the most horrible tortures, he subsequently related his interviews with Assonleville and with the president of the Jesuit college at Tréves, adding that he had been influenced in his work by the assurance of obtaining the rewards promised by the Ban. During the intervals of repose from the rack he conversed with ease, and even eloquence, answer-

ing all questions addressd to him with apparent sincerity. His constancy in suffering so astonished his judges that they believed him supported by witchcraft. "Ecce homo!" he exclaimed from time to time, with insane blasphemy, as he raised his blood-streaming head from the bench. In order to destroy the charm which seemed to render him insensible to pain, they sent for the shirt of a hospital patient supposed to be a sorcerer. When clothed in this garment, however, Balthazar was none the less superior to the arts of the tormentors, enduring all their inflictions, according to an eye-witness, "without once exclaiming, Ah me!" and avowing that he would repeat his enterprise, if possible, were he to die a thousand deaths in consequence. Some of those present refused to believe that he was a man at all. Others asked him how long since he had sold himself to the Devil? to which he replied, mildly, that he had no acquaintance whatever with the Devil. He thanked the judges politely for the food which he received in prison and promised to recompense them for the favor. Upon being asked how that was possible, he replied, that he would serve as their advocate in Paradise.

The sentence pronounced again the assassin was execrable—a crime against the memory of the great man whom it professed to avenge. It was decreed that the right hand of Gérard should be burned off with a red-hot iron, that his flesh should be torn from his bones with pinchers in six different places, that he should be quartered and disemboweled alive, that his heart should be torn from his bosom and flung in his face, and, that, finally, his head should be taken off. Not even this horrible crime, with its endless consequences, nor the natural frenzy of indignation which it had excited, could justify this savage decree, to rebuke which the murdered hero might almost have risen from the sleep of death. The sentence was literally executed on the 14th of July, the criminal supporting its horrors with the same astonishing fortitude. So calm were his nerves, crippled and half roasted as he was ere he mounted the scaffold, that when

one of the executioners was slightly injured in the ear by the flying from the handle of the hammer with which he was breaking the fatal pistol in pieces, as the first step in the execution—a circumstance which produced a general laugh in the crowd—a smile was observed upon Balthazar's face in sympathy with the general hilarity. His lips were seen to move up to the moment when his heart was thrown in his face—"Then," said a looker-on "he gave up the ghost."

The reward promised by Philip to the man who should murder Orange was paid to the heirs of Gérard. Parma informed his sovereign that the "poor man" had been executed, but that his father and mother were still living, to whom he recommended the payment of that "merced" which "the laudable and generous deed had so well deserved." This was accordingly done, and the excellent parents, ennobled and enriched by the crime of their son, received instead of the twenty-five thousand crowns promised in the Ban, the three seignories of Lievremont, Hostal, and Dampmartin, in the Franche Comté, and took their place at once among the landed aristocracy. Thus the bounty of the Prince had furnished the weapon by which his life was destroyed, and his estates supplied the fund out of which the assassin's family received the price of blood. At a later day, when the unfortunate eldest son of Orange returned from Spain after twenty-seven years' absence, a changeling and a Spaniard, the restoration of those very estates was offered to him by Philip the Second, provided he would continue to pay a fixed proportion of their rents to the family of his father's murderer. The education which Philip William had received, under the King's auspices, had, however, not entirely destroyed all his human feelings, and he rejected the proposal with scorn. The estates remained with the Gérard family, and the patents of nobility which they had received were used to justify their exemption from certain taxes, until the union of Franche Comté with France,

when a French governor tore the documents in pieces and trampled them under foot.

Characteristics of the Prince of Orange

In person, Orange was above the middle height, perfectly well made and sinewy, but rather spare than stout. His eyes, hair, beard, and complexion were brown. His head was small, symmetrically-shaped, combining the alertness and compactness characteristic of the soldier, with the capacious brow furrowed prematurely with the horizontal lines of thought, denoting the statesman and the sage. His physical appearance was, therefore, in harmony with his organization which was of antique model. Of his moral qualities, the most prominent was his piety. He was more than anything else a religious man. From his trust in God, he ever derived support and consolation in the darkest hours. Implicitly relying upon Almighty wisdom and goodness, he looked danger in the face with a constant smile, and endured incessant labors and trials with a serenity which seemed more than human. While, however, his soul was full of piety, it was tolerant of error. Sincerely and deliberately himself a convert to the Reformed Church, he was ready to extend freedom of worship to Catholics on the one hand, and to Anabaptists on the other, for no man ever felt more keenly than he, that the Reformer who becomes in his turn a bigot is doubly odious.

His firmness was allied to his piety. His constancy in bearing the whole weight of a struggle as unequal as men have ever undertaken, was the theme of admiration even to his enemies. The rock in the ocean, "tranquil amid raging billows," was the favorite emblem by which his friends expressed their sense of his firmness. From the time when, as a hostage in France, he first discovered the plan of Philip to plant the Inquisition in the Netherlands, up to the last moment of his life, he never faltered in his determination to resist that iniquitous scheme. This resistance was the labor of his life. To exclude the Inquisition, to maintain

the ancient liberties of his country, was the task which he appointed to himself when a youth of three-and-twenty. Never speaking a word concerning a heavenly mission, never deluding himself or others with the usual phraseology of enthusiasts, he accomplished the task, through danger, amid toils and with sacrifices such as few men have ever been able to make on their country's altar;—for the disinterested benevolence of the man was as prominent as his fortitude. A prince of high rank and with royal revenues, he stripped himself of station, wealth, almost at times of the common necessaries of life, and became, in his country's cause, nearly a beggar as well as an outlaw. Nor was he forced into his career by an accidental impulse from which there was no recovery. Retreat was ever open to him. Not only pardon but advancement was urged upon him again and again. Officially and privately, directly and circuitously, his confiscated estates, together with indefinite and boundless favors in addition, were offered to him on every great occasion. On the arrival of Don John, at the Breda negotiations, at the Cologne conferences, we have seen how calmly these offers were waved aside, as if their rejection was so simple that it hardly required many words for its signification, yet he had mortgaged his estates so deeply that his heirs hesitated at accepting their inheritance, for fear it should involve them in debt.

It is difficult to find any other characteristic deserving of grave censure, but his enemies have adopted a simpler process. They have been able to find few flaws in his nature, and therefore have denounced it in gross. It is not that his character was here and there defective, but that the eternal jewel was false. The patriotism was counterfeit; the self-abnegation and the generosity were counterfeit. He was governed only by ambition—by a desire of personal advancement. They never attempted to deny his talents, his industry, his vast sacrifices of wealth and station; but they ridiculed the idea that he could have been inspired by any but unworthy motives. God alone knows the heart of

man. He alone can unweave the tangled skein of human motives, and detect the hidden springs of human action, but as far as can be judged by a careful observation of undisputed facts, and by a diligent collation of public and private documents, it would seem that no man—not even Washington—has ever been inspired by a purer patriotism. At any rate, the charge of ambition and self-seeking can only be answered by a reference to the whole picture which these volumes have attempted to portray. The words, the deeds of the man are there. As much as possible, his inmost soul is revealed in his confidential letters, and he who looks in a right spirit will hardly fail to find what he desires.

Whether originally of a timid temperament or not, he was certainly possessed of perfect courage at last. In siege and battle—in the deadly air of pestilential cities—in the long exhaustion of mind and body which comes from unduly protracted labor and anxiety—amid the countless conspiracies of assassins—he was daily exposed to death in every shape. Within two years, five different attempts against his life had been discovered. Rank and fortune were offered to any malefactor who would compass the murder. He had already been shot through the head, and almost mortally wounded. Under such circumstances, even a brave man might have seen a pitfall at every step, a dagger in every hand, and poison in every cup. On the contrary, he was ever cheerful, and hardly took more precaution than usual. "God in his mercy," said he, with unaffected simplicity, "will maintain my innocence and my honor during my life and in future ages. As to my fortune and my life, I have dedicated both, long since, to his service. He will do therewith what pleases Him for His glory and my salvation." Thus his suspicions were not even excited by the ominous face of Gérard, when he first presented himself at the dining-room door. The Prince laughed off his wife's prophetic apprehension at the sight of his murderer, and was as cheerful as usual to the last.

He possessed, too, that which to the heathen philoso-

pher seemed the greatest good—the sound mind in the sound body. His physical frame was after death found so perfect that a long life might have been in store for him, notwithstanding all which he had endured. The desperate illness of 1574, the frightful gunshot wound inflicted by Jaureguy in 1582, had left no traces. The physicians pronounced that his body presented an aspect of perfect health. His temperament was cheerful. At table, the pleasures of which, in moderation, were his only relaxation, he was always animated and merry, and this jocoseness was partly natural, partly intentional. In the darkest hours of his country's trial, he affected a serenity which he was far from feeling, so that his apparent gaiety at momentous epochs was even censured by dullards, who could not comprehend its philosophy, nor applaud the flippancy of William the Silent.

He went through life bearing the load of a people's sorrows upon his shoulders with a smiling face. Their name was the last word upon his lips, save the simple affirmative, with which the soldier who had been battling for the right all his lifetime, commended his soul in dying "to his great captain, Christ." The people were grateful and affectionate, for they trusted the character of their "Father William," and not all the clouds which calumny could collect ever dimmed to their eyes the radiance of that lofty mind to which they were accustomed, in their darkest calamities, to look for light. As long as he lived, he was the guiding-star of a whole brave nation, and when he died the little children cried in the streets.

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His intellectual faculties were various and of the highest order. He had the exact, practical, and combining qualities which make the great commander, and his friends claim that, in military genius, he was second to no captain in Europe. This was, no doubt, an exaggeration of partial attachment, but it is certain that the Emperor Charles had an exalted opinion of his capacity for the field. His fortification of Philippeville and Charlemont, in the face of

the enemy—his passage of the Meuse in Alva's sight—his unfortunate but well-ordered campaign against that general —his sublime plan of relief, projected and successfully directed at last from his sick bed, for the besieged city of Leyden—will always remain monuments of his practical military skill.

Of the soldier's great virtues—constancy in disaster, devotion to duty, hopefulness in defeat—no man ever possessed a larger share. He arrived through a series of reverses, at a perfect victory. He planted a free commonwealth under the very battery of the Inquisition, in defiance of the most powerful empire existing. He was therefore a conqueror in the loftiest sense, for he conquered liberty and a national existence for a whole people. The contest was long, and he fell in the struggle, but the victory was to the dead hero, not to the living monarch. It is to be remembered, too, that he always wrought with inferior instruments. His troops were usually mercenaries, who were but too apt to mutiny upon the eve of battle, while he was opposed by the most formidable veterans of Europe, commanded successively by the first captains of the age. That, with no lieutenant of eminent valor or experience, save only his brother Louis, and with none at all after that chieftain's death, William of Orange should succeed in baffling the efforts of Alva, Requesens, Don John of Austria, and Alexander Farnese—men whose names are among the most brilliant in the military annals of the world—is in itself sufficient evidence of his warlike ability. At the period of his death he had reduced the number of obedient provinces to two; only Artois and Hainault acknowledging Philip, while the other fifteen were in open revolt, the greater part having solemnly forsworn their sovereign.

The supremacy of his political genius was entirely beyond question. He was the first statesman of the age. The quickness of his perception was only equaled by the caution which enabled him to mature the results of his observations. His knowledge of human nature was profound. He gov-

erned the passions and sentiments of a great nation as if they had been but the keys and chords of one vast instrument; and his hand rarely failed to evoke harmony even out of the wildest storms.

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Ghent, saved thrice by the policy, the eloquence, the self-sacrifice of Orange, fell within three months of his murder into the hands of Parma. The loss of this most important city, followed in the next year by the downfall of Antwerp, sealed the fate of the Southern Netherlands. Had the Prince lived, how different might have been the country's fate! If seven provinces could dilate, in so brief a space, into the powerful commonwealth which the Republic soon became, what might not have been achieved by the united seventeen; a confederacy which would have united the adamantine vigor of the Batavian and Frisian races with the subtler, more delicate, and more graceful national elements in which the genius of the Frank, the Roman, and the Romanized Celt were so intimately blended. As long as the Father of the country lived, such a union was possible. His power of managing men was so unquestionable, that there was always a hope even in the darkest hour, for men felt implicit reliance, as well on his intellectual resources as on his integrity.

This power of dealing with his fellowmen he manifested in the various ways in which it has been usually exhibited by statesmen. He possessed a ready eloquence—sometimes impassioned, oftener argumentative, always rational. His influence over his audience was unexampled in the annals of that country or age; yet he never condescended to flatter the people. He never followed the nation, but always led her in the path of duty and of honor, and was much more prone to rebuke the vices than to pander to the passions of his hearers. He never failed to administer ample chastisement to parsimony, to jealousy, to insubordination, to intolerance, to infidelity, wherever it was due, nor feared to confront the states or the people in their most angry hours, and

to tell them the truth to their faces. This commanding position he alone could stand upon, for his countrymen knew the generosity which had sacrified his all for them, the self-denial which had eluded rather than sought political advancement, whether from king or people, and the untiring devotion which had consecrated a whole life to toil and danger in the cause of their emancipation. While, therefore, he was ever ready to rebuke, and always too honest to flatter, he at the same time possessed the eloquence which could convince or persuade. He knew how to reach both the mind and the heart of his hearers. His orations, whether extemporaneous or prepared—his written messages to the states-general, to the provincial authorities, to the municipal bodies —his private correspondence with men of all ranks, from emperors and kings down to secretaries, and even children—all show an easy flow of language, a fulness of thought, a power of expression rare in that age, a fund of historical allusion, a considerable power of imagination, a warmth of sentiment, a breadth of view, a directness of purpose—a range of qualities, in short, which would in themselves have stamped him as one of the master-minds of his century, had there been no other monument to his memory than the remains of his spoken or written eloquence. The bulk of his performances in this department was prodigious. Not even Philip was more industrious in the cabinet. Not even Granville hald a more facile pen. He wrote and spoke equally well in French, German, or Flemish; and he possessed, besides, Spanish, Italian, Latin. The weight of his correspondence alone would have almost sufficed for the common industry of a lifetime, and although many volumes of his speeches and letters have been published, there remain in the various archives of the Netherlands and Germany many documents from his hand which will probably never see the light. If the capacity for unremitted intellectual labor in an honorable cause be the measure of human greatness, few minds could be compared to the "large composition" of this man.

The German Kaiser

By Harold Frederic

[The purpose of this series of studies which has been selected from the best of the many books written upon the German Emperor is to give CHAUTAUQUAN readers an accurate picture of the most striking personality among the crowned heads of Europe. The following extracts, taken from Harold Frederic's "The Young Emperor," published by Putnam's in 1892, will be followed by others from equally interesting and more recent writers.]

The Kaiser's Education

YOUNG WILLIAM was the first of his race to be sent to a public school, the big gymnasium at Cassel being selected for the purpose. The innovation was credited at the time to the eccentric liberalizing notions of his mother, the English Crown Princess. The old Kaiser did not like the idea, and Bismarck vehemently opposed it, but the parents had their way, and at the age of fifteen the lad went, along with his twelve-year-old brother Henry, and their tutor, Dr. Hinzpeter. They were lodged in an old schloss, which had been one of the Electoral residences, and out of school hours maintained a considerable seclusion. But in the school itself William was treated quite like any ordinary citizen's son.

It may have been a difficult matter for some of the teachers to act as if they were unconscious that this particular pupil was the heir to the Hohenzollerns, but men who were at the school at the time assure me they did so, with only one exception. The solitary flunkey, knowing that William was more backward in his Greek than most of his class, sought to curry favor with the Prince by warning him that the morrow's examination was to be, let us say, upon a certain chapter of Xenophon. The boy William received this hint in silence, but early the next morning went down to the classroom and wrote upon the blackboard in big letters the

information he had received, so that he might have no advantage over his fellows. This struck me when I heard it as a curious illustration of the boy's character. There seems to have been no excited indignation at the meanness of the tutor—but only the manifestation of a towering personal and family pride, which would not allow him to win a prize through profiting by knowledge withheld from the others.

During his three years at Cassel William was very democratic in his intercourse with the other boys. He may have been helped to this by the fact that he was one of the worst-dressed boys in the school—in accordance with an ancient family rule which makes the Hohenzollern children wear out their old clothes in a way that would astonish the average grocer's progeny. He was only an ordinary scholar so far as his studies went. At that time his brother Henry, who went to a different school, was conspicuously the brighter pupil of the two. Those who were at Cassel with the future Emperor have the idea that he was contented there, but he himself, upon reflection, is convinced that he did not like it.

At the age of eighteen William left Cassel and entered upon his university course at Bonn. Here his tutor, Hinzpeter, who had been his daily companion and mentor from childhood, parted company with him, and the young Prince passed into the hands of soldiers and men of the world. The change marks an important epoch in the formation of his character.

There is a photograph of him belonging to the earlier part of this Cassel period which depicts a refined, gentle, dreamy-faced German boy, with a soft, girlish chin, small arched lips with a suggestion of dimples at the corners, and fine meditative eyes. The forehead, though not broad, is of fair height and fullness. The dominant effect of the face is that of sweetness. Looking at it, one instinctively thinks "How fond that boy's parents must have been of him!" And they were fond in the extreme.

It is more than probable that the idea of sending the young Prince to the Cassel gymnasium originated with Dr. Hinzpeter. At all events, we know that he held advanced and extreme views as to the necessity of emphasizing the popular side of the Hohenzollern tradition.

This Prussian family has always differed radically from its other German neighbors in professing to be solicitous for the poor people rather than for the nobility's privileges and claims. Sometimes this has sunk to be a profession merely; more often it has been an active guiding principle. The lives of the second and third Kings of Prussia are filled with the most astonishing details of vigilant, ceaseless intermeddling in the affairs of peasant farmers, artisans, and wage-earners generally, hearing complaints, spying out injustice, and roughly seeing wrongs righted. When Prussia grew too big to be thus paternally administered by a King poking about on his rounds with a rattan and a taker of notes, the tradition still survived. We find traces of it all along down to our times in the legislation of the Diet in the direction of what is called State Socialism.

Dr. Hinzpeter felt the full inspiration of this tradition. He longed to make it more a reality in the mind of his princely pupil than it had ever been before. Thus it was that the lad was sent to Cassel, to sit on hard benches with the sons of simple citizens, and to get to know what the life of the people was like. Years afterwards this inspiration was to bear fruit.

But in 1877 the work of creating an ideally democratic and popular Hohenzollern was abruptly interrupted. Dr. Hinzpeter went back to Bielefeld, and young William entered the University of Bonn. The soft-faced, gentle-minded boy, still full of his mother's milk, his young mind sweetened and strengthened by the dreams of clemency, compassion, and earnest searchings after duty which he had imbibed from his teacher, suddenly found himself transplanted in new ground. The atmosphere was absolutely novel. Instead of being a boy among boys, he all at once found him-

self a prince amongst aristocratic toadies. In place of Hinzpeter, he had a military *aide* given him for principal companion, friend, and guide.

These next few years at the Rhenish university did not, we see now, wholly efface what Dr. Hinzpeter had done. But they obscured and buried his work, and reared upon its a superstructure of another sort—a different kind of William, redolent of royal pretensions, and youthful self-conceit, delighting in the rattle and clank of spurs and swords and dreaming of battlefields.

Poor Hinzpeter, in his Bielefeld retreat, could have had but small satisfaction in learning of the growth of the new William. The parents at Potsdam, too, who had built such loving hopes upon the tender and gracious promise of boyhood—they could not have been happy either.

The Kaiser and the Press

A whimsical susceptibility to affront in the printed word, no matter how mean or trivial the force back of it, is a trait which has often come near making Bismarck ridiculous, and it is not pleasant to note how largely William seems also to be possessed with it. He is as nervous about what the papers will say as a young *debutante* on the stage. Not only does he keep an anxious watch upon the talk of the German editors, but he ordains a vigilant scrutiny of the articles printed in foreign countries from the pens of correspondents stationed at Berlin. In this he is very German. Nobody in England, for example, ever dreams of caring about, or for the most part of even taking the trouble to learn, what is printed about English personages or politics. The foreign correspondents in London are as free as the wind that blows. But matters were ordered very differently at the beginning of the present reign in Berlin, and to this day journalists pursue their calling there under a sense of espionage hardly to be imagined in Fleet Street. It is true that a change for the better is distinctly visible of late, but it will be the work of many years to eradicate the low views

of German journalism which Bismarck has instilled, alike, unfortunately, in the royal palaces and the editorial offices of Prussia.

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So recently as in May, 1890, some two months after the retirement of Bismarck, when the regular official deputation from the new Reichstag waited upon William, he pointed out to the Radical members that the *Freisinnige* press was criticizing the army estimates, which he and his generals had made as low as possible, and sharply warned them to see that a stop was put to such conduct on the part of their friends, the Radical editors. And in December of 1890, in his remarkable speech to the Educational Conference, he lightly grouped journalists with the "hunger candidates" and others who formed an over-educated class "dangerous to society."

The Kaiser's Infallibility

This inability to tolerate the expression of opinions different from his own is very Bismarckian. The ex-Chancellor, in fact, has for years past acted and talked upon the theory that anybody who did not agree with him must of necessity be unpatriotic, and came at last to hurl the epithet of *Reichsfeind*—enemy of the Empire—every time anyone disputed him on any point whatever.

William has roughly shorn away Bismarck's pretence to infallibility, but about the divine nature of his own claims he has no doubt. Some of his deliverances on questions of morals and ethics, in his capacity as a sort of helmeted Northern Pope, are calculated to bring a smile to the face of the Muse of History. His celebrated harangue to the Rector of the Berlin University, Professor Gebhardt, wherein he complained that, under the lead of democratic professors, the students were filled with destructive political doctrines, and concluded by gruffly saying, "Let your students go more to churches and less to beer cellars and fencing saloons"—was put down to his youth, for it dates

The Kaiser in the Uniform of a Spanish General.

from the close of 1888. It is interesting to note, from William's recent speech at Bonn, that he has decidedly altered his views on both beer-drinking and duelling among students. He began his reign, however, with ultra-puritanical notions on these as well as other subjects.

Long after this early deliverance his confidence in himself, so far from suffering abatement, had so magnified itself that he called the professors of another university together and lectured them upon the bad way in which they were taught history. He had discovered, he said, that there was now much fondness for treating the French Revolution as a great political movement, not without its helpful and beneficient results. This pernicious notion must no longer be encouraged in German universities, but students should be taught to regard the whole thing as one vast and unmitigated crime against God and man.

In this dogmatic phrase of his character William is much more like Frederic William I than like any of his nearer ancestors in the Hohenzollern line. These later monarchs, beginning with Frederic the Great and following his luminous example, were habitually chary about bothering themselves with their subjects' opinions. William at one time thought a good deal upon the fact that he was a successor of Frederic the Great, and by fits and starts set himself to imitate the earlier acts of that sovereign. His restless flying about from place to place, and, even more clearly, his edicts rebuking the army officers for gambling and for harshness to their men, were copied from the illustrious original. But in his attitude toward the mental and moral liberty of his subjects he goes back a generation to Frederic's father—and suggests to us also the reflection that he is a grandson of that highly self-confident gentleman whom English-speaking people knew as the Prince Consort.

Personal Appearance

In the matter of personal appearance there are two quite distinct and different Williams. Those who see the

The Kaiser as a Doctor of Laws, Cambridge University.

young German Emperor on a state occasion think of him as almost a tall man, with a stern, thoughtful face and the most distinguished bearing of any sovereign in Europe. He holds himself with arrow-like straightness, bears his uniform or robes with proud grace, and draws his features into a kind of mask of imperial dignity and reserved wisdom and strength very impressive to the beholder. It is with what may be called this official countenance of William's that the general public is chiefly familiar, for he assumes it in front of the photographer's camera, just as he does on parade, at formal gatherings, and even in his carriage when he drives through the streets. There is nothing to cavil at in this. One of the most important functions of an Emperor must surely be to look like an Emperor.

But in private life, when the absence of ceremonial and the presence of none but friends permits him to unbend, we see quite another William. He does not now give the impression of being a tall man, and his face wears a softened and kindly expression prone to break into an extremely sweet and winning smile. When this smiling mood is upon him he looks curiously like his uncle, the Duke of Connaught, although at other times the resemblance is not apparent. As a boy he was very white-skinned, with pale flaxen hair. Years of military outdoor life burned his face to a tawny brown, through which of late an unhealthy pallor, the product of overwork and sleeplessness, at times shows itself. His hair is of average darkness, but his small and habitually curled moustache is of a light yellowish color.

An observer who studied him closely during a whole day when he first visited Russia in 1888 describes him at the first morning review of troops as carrying himself almost pompously erect, and wearing a countenance of such gloomy severity that everybody was afraid to approach him, so that the officers who saw him for the first time jokingly whispered to one another that a new William the Taciturn had come into being. But in the afternoon, when the Czarina presided over a little garden party, limited almost to

the circle of royalty, William appeared in a straw hat and jaunty holiday costume, smoked cigarettes continuously, and laughed and chatted with everybody as gaily and affably as any little bank book-keeper snatching an unaccustomed day in the country.

The Kaiser Religious

The young Emperor has always been spoken of by those close to him as a sincerely religious man. During the past year his tendencies in this direction have visibly received a great impetus. The note of pious fervor is struck now with much greater frequency than formerly, and with a ring of candor which forbids the suggestion of pretence. He only the other day concluded a speech to a squad of recruits with the earnest injunction to use the Lord's Prayer, adding that he had himself derived much help from doing so. It is not an altogether pleasant commentary upon the value of the Christian profession of our day, that this remark has been cited as indication that William's mind was losing its balance. The scandalous stories which the French and Russian press set in circulation last summer about his mad behavior on his yacht, were all built upon the fact that he preached sermons to the crew—or rather read a series of little homilies prepared for the purpose by one of his chaplains. If this is a proof of madness, it might not be a bad idea to have William bite some of the other sovereigns and princes of Europe.

Famous European Short Stories

I. On the Journey*

By Guy de Maupassant

[In connection with the C. L. S. C. book "Studies in European Literature" it is planned to publish in THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month some short story masterpiece by the greatest European writers. The story published herewith is by Guy de Maupassant, the acknowledged master of French short story. This example of his work, though perhaps not so widely known as some others, is nevertheless typical of his style and method. —THE EDITOR]

SINCE leaving Cannes the carriage had been full; and being all acquainted, we conversed together. As we passed Tarascon someone said, "It is here the murders happen." And we began to talk of that mysterious assassin who has never been caught, and who from time to time during the last two years has offered up to himself some traveler's life. Everyone hazarded suppositions, everyone gave his opinion; and women looked shiveringly at the sombre night behind the panes, fearing to see the head of a man show suddenly in the doorway. And we began to tell dreadful stories of adventures, of some tête-à-tête with a madman in an express, of hours passed opposite suspicious-looking persons, quite alone.

All the men had stories "on their honor;" all had intimidated, knocked down, and choked some malefactor in surprising circumstances, and with admirable boldness and presence of mind. A physician who passed each winter in the South, wished in his turn to tell a tale.

"I," said he, "have never had a chance to try my courage in an affair of that sort; but I knew a woman, one of my patients, who is now dead, to whom there happened the strangest thing in the world, and also the most mysterious and the most affecting.

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*From the "Odd Number," by Guy de Maupassant. Translated by Jonathan Sturges. Copyright, 1889, by Harper and Brothers. Reprinted through the courtesy of the publishers.

"She was a Russian, the Countess Marie Baranow, a very great lady of exquisite beauty. You all know how beautiful Russian woman are, or at least how beautiful they seem to us, with their fine nostrils, with their delicate mouths, with their eyes of an indefinable color—a sort of a blue-gray, set close together—and with that grace of theirs which is cold and a little hard. They have about them something naughty and seductive, something haughty and gentle, something tender and severe, which is altogether charming to a Frenchman. It is perhaps, however, only the difference of race and type which makes me see so much.

"For several years her doctor had perceived that she was threatened with a malady of the chest, and had been trying to induce her to go to the South of France; but she obstinately refused to leave St. Petersburg. Finally, last autumn, the physician gave her up as lost, and so informed her husband, who at once ordered his wife to leave for Mentone.

"She took the train, alone in her carriage, her servants occupying another apartment. She leaned against the doorway, a little sad, watching the country and the passing villages, feeling herself in life so lonely, so abandoned, without children, almost without relatives, with a husband whose love was dead, and who, not coming with her, had just thrown her off to the end of the world as he would send to the hospital a valet who was sick.

"At each station, her body-servant Ivan came to ask if anything was wanted by his mistress. He was an old servant, blindly devoted, ready to carry out any order which she might give.

"The night fell, the train rolled onward at full speed. She was much unstrung, she could not sleep. Suddenly she took the idea of counting the money which her husband had given her at the last moment, in French gold. She opened her little bag, and emptied the shining flood of metal upon her knees.

"But all of a sudden a breath of cold air struck her in the face. She raised her head in surprise. The door had just swung open. The Countess Marie, in desperation, brusquely threw a shawl over the money which was spread upon her knees, and waited. Some seconds passed, then a man appeared, bareheaded, wounded in the hand, panting, in evening dress. He shut the door again, sat down, looked at his neighbor with glittering eyes, then wrapped a handkerchief round his wrist, from which the blood was flowing.

"The young countess felt herself grow weak with fright. This man had certainly seen her counting her gold, and he was come to murder and to rob.

"He kept staring at her, breathless, his face convulsed, ready, no doubt, to make a spring.

"He said suddenly:

"'Have no fear, madame!'

"She answered nothing, being unable to open her mouth, hearing her heart beat and her ears hum.

"He continued:

"'I am not a criminal, madame.'

"She said nothing, but in a brusque movement which she made, her knees came close together, and her gold began to flow down upon the carpet as water flows from a gutter.

"The man, surprised, looked at this rivulet of metal, and suddenly he stooped to pick up the money.

"She rose in a mad fright, casting all her treasure to the ground, and ran to the door to throw herself out upon the track. But he understood what she was about to do, rushed forward, caught her in his arms, made her sit down by force, and holding her wrists: 'Listen, madame, I am not a criminal, and the proof is that I am going to pick up this money and give it back to you. But I am a lost man, a dead man, unless you help me to cross the frontier. I cannot tell you more. In one hour we shall be at the last Russian station; in one hour and twenty minutes we shall pass the boundary of the empire. If you do not rescue me, I am lost. And yet, madame, I have neither killed nor

stolen, nor done anything against my honor. I swear it to you. I cannot tell you more.'

"And getting down upon his knees, he picked up the gold, looking even for the last pieces, which had rolled far under the seats. Then, when the little leather bag was once more full, he returned it to his neighbor without adding a word, and again he went and sat in the other corner of the carriage.

"They no longer stirred, either one or the other. She remained motionless and dumb, still fainting with terror, then little by little growing more at ease. As for him, he did not make a gesture, a movement; he sat straight, his eyes fastened before him, very pale, as though he had been dead. From time to time she looked at him suddenly, and as suddenly looked away. He was a man about thirty, very handsome, with every appearance of a gentleman.

"The train ran through the darkness, cast rending cries across the night, sometimes slackened its pace, then went off again at full speed. But suddenly it slowed, whistled several times, and stopped.

"Ivan appeared at the door to get his orders.

"The Countess Marie, with a trembling voice, considered her strange companion for the last time, then said to her servant, with a brusque voice:

" 'Ivan, you are to return to the count; I have no more need of you.'

"The man, speechless, opened his enormous eyes. He stammered:

" 'But—Barine!'

"She continued:

" 'No, you are not to come; I have changed my mind. I desire that you remain in Russia. Here is money to return. Give me your cap and your cloak.'

"The old servant, quite bewildered, bared his head and held out his cloak. He always obeyed without reply, being well accustomed to the sudden wishes and the irresistible

caprices of his masters. And he withdrew, the tears in his eyes.

"The train went on, running towards the frontier.

"Then the Countess Marie said to her neighbor:

" 'These things are for you, moniseur; you are Ivan, my servant. I add only one condition to what I do: it is that you shall never speak to me, that you shall not address me a single word, either to thank me or for any purpose whatever.'

"The unknown bowed without uttering a word.

"Very soon they came to a stop once more, and officials in uniform visited the train. The countess offered them her papers, and pointing to the man seated at the back of the carriage:

" 'My servant, Ivan. Here is his passport.

"The train went on.

"During the whole night, they remained in tête-à-tête, both silent.

"In the morning, when they stopped at a German station, the unknown got down; then, standing straight in the door-way:

" 'Forgive my breaking my promise, madame; but I have deprived you of your servant, and it is right that I should fill his place. Have you need of anything?'

"She answered coldly:

" 'Go and find my maid.'

"He went to do so, then disappeared.

"When she got out of the carriage at some restaurant or other, she perceived him at a distance looking at her. They reached Mentone."

The doctor was silent a second, then resumed:

"One day, as I was receiving my patients in my office, I saw enter a tall young fellow, who said to me:

" 'Doctor, I come to ask news about the Countess Marie Baranow. I am, although she does not know me, a friend of her husband.'

"I replied:

" 'She is doomed. She will never go back to Russia.'

"And the man suddenly commenced to sob, then he got up and went out, reeling like a drunkard.

"The same night I told the countess that a stranger had come to inquire from me about her health. She seemed moved, and told me all the story which I have just told you. She added:

" 'That man, whom I do not know at all, now follows me like a shadow, I meet him every time I go out; he looks at me after a strange fashion, but he has never spoken.'

"She reflected, then added:

" 'See, I would wager he is under my window.'

"She left her easy-chair, went to pull back the curtains, and sure enough, she showed me the man who had come to see me, now seated there on a bench upon the promenade, his eyes lifted towards the hotel. He perceived us, rose, and went off without once turning his head.

"And from that time forward, I assisted at a surprising sorrowful thing—at the silent love of these two beings, who did not even know one another.

"He loved her with the affection of an animal who has been saved, and who is grateful and devoted unto death. He came each day to say to me: 'How is she?' understanding that I had divined the secret. And he cried when he had seen her pass each day feebler and paler.

"She said to me:

" 'I have spoken but a single time to that strange man, and it seems to me as if I had known him for twenty years.'

"And when they met, she would return his bow with a grave and charming smile. I could see that she was happy—she, the abandoned, the doomed—I could see that she was happy to be loved like this, with such respect and such consistency, with such exaggerated poetry, with this devotion which was ready for all things. And notwithstanding, faithful to her mystical resolve, she wildly refused to receive him, to know his name, to speak with him. She said: 'No, no, that would spoil for me this curious

friendship. We must remain strangers one to the other.'

"As for him, he also was certainly a kind of Don Quixote, because he made no attempt to approach her. He meant to keep to the end the absurd promise of never speaking, which he had made her in the railway carriage.

"Often, during her weary hours of weakness, she rose from her long chair, and went to open the curtains a little way to see if he was there, beneath her window. And when she had seen him, always motionless upon his bench, she went back and lay down with a smile upon her lips.

"She died one day about ten o'clock. As I was leaving the hotel he came up to me with a distracted face; he had already heard the news.

" 'I would like to see her, for one second, in your presence,' said he.

"I took him by the arm and went back into the house.

"When he was before the couch of the dead he seized her hand and kissed it with an endless kiss, then escaped like a madman."

The doctor again was silent; then continued:

"This is certainly the strangest railway adventure that I know. It must also be said that men take sometimes the wildest freaks."

A woman murmured, half aloud:

"Those two people were not so crazy as you think. They were—they were—"

But she could not speak further, she was crying so. As we changed the conversation to calm her, we never knew what she had wished to say.

The Vesper Hour*

By Chancellor John H. Vincent

At the opening "Vesper Hour" of the new year in the C. L. S. C. perhaps I cannot do better than to reply to certain questions which have recently come to me and which may often have arisen in the minds of other Chautauqua readers. One member raises the following question: When we speak of the Jews as "chosen people" are we not implying a lack of justice in God in dealing with other races?

The most interesting of all the races is the Hebrew. To say nothing of the Biblical records, in the details of the history from the days of Abraham to those of St. John we find the most interesting material in the studies which have been made of the persecutions, the achievements, the indefatigable efforts and the marvelous successes which individuals and families have scored. It is too late in our modern civilization to depreciate the race as a whole, or to speak words of contempt of individual Hebrews. For industry, tact, persistency, patience under abuse, fidelity to religious conviction the Jews are not only not excelled, they are not equaled in the annals of history. They were, according to our Christian theory, a chosen people with a specific mission of preparation for a consummation the most wonderful in all history—the birth, the training and the manifestation of the Messiah, the Christ whom as Christians we recognize as the ripe fruit of the whole Jewish system, a human-divine product through whom the highest civilization of the race has been realized and through whom the salvation of the race—the representatives of the race who give consent—is guaranteed. We Christians owe all that is best and noblest in our civilization to the Jew. The most precious names on our list of saints, heroes, teachers from Moses to Christ are names of Jews. The great Christian

*The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent, continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

authorities, Paul, Peter, John, Matthew, Luke, all were Jews.

The Jews we always, as Christian people, say were a "chosen people." To them we are indebted for all that is best in the beginnings of the Christian faith. When we say that they were a "chosen" people we do not assume that our great God was at all a partial God, giving advantage to one people above another. In the divine wisdom and love all peoples the world over and the ages through have some knowledge of Deity, some intimations and leadings which if followed will invariably and inevitably bring more light to the individual who is willing to obey the light he has. God has had his witness among all races. No individual with the moral sense but has his opportunity to choose between the higher and the lower, the truth and error. And as each man follows the light he has a clearer light and a larger opportunity has been given him. Everybody has a chance. No one is without ability to show what his preference is and what line of life he will follow. The Jews were a chosen people, chosen for a special work, chosen to illustrate the divine providence in all nations and for all people. They were favored in being illustrations of God's universal care. What Israel had all peoples in some measure had. God calls all nations to honor Him, to follow His direction. And the career of Israel was a lesson for individual lives and for national life in all climes and in all periods of history. The ideals of personal character set forth by distinguished Israelites were designed to foreshadow the Messiah and to serve as examples for all time, and for Gentiles of every kind.

The question is asked: "Do you not think that the present study of Sociology in college and social 'settlements' is tending to displace religious interest?" In reply I say with all possible emphasis: *The very reverse is true.*

There is a new interest in the civilized world in the study of social questions. We find it everywhere. The great missionary movements projected and carried on during the past century have awakened a new interest in the great question of the relations of the individual to society and the ob-

ligation of all men everywhere to ask, How may man help man? How may society help the individual? How may the evils and sufferings and the sins of society be removed and society become strong in righteousness and philanthropic impulse? What is religion but the love of man born of the knowledge and love of God? What did the Son of Man in his teachings say concerning the two sides of human obligation? Thou shalt love the Lord God with all thy heart and thy neighbor as thyself. Modern Sociology is organized, scientific, efficient Christianity of the noblest type. It is carried on by foremost Christian believers. It develops religious faith and sympathy. It wins men and women to a higher appreciation of Christianity.

Some one writes as follows: "Do you think the church and the world are drawing nearer together to the detriment of the church?" I answer promptly and emphatically that what we call the "world" is often only the awakened "society" that has become aware of its responsibility to all members of the race and that for the first time apprehends the theory of Jesus that the highest service of God is in the love and service of our fellow men; that he best worships who helps, always, of course, keeping in mind both divine worship and in human service the necessity of having the heart filled with the love of both the divine Father and all human brothers which includes in a very important sense the entire race. It can never be a "detriment" to the church to love even the "Samaritan" as Jesus did and to do for the good of one's "enemy" just what one would wish that enemy to do for him. No unselfish love and service can possibly do anything but good to the doer and to the recipient. It is a most unworthy view of religious obligation that limits religion to a certain class of ecclesiastical functions, a fixed and unalterable creed statement or the building up of an "institution" at the expense and the inevitable damage of society and "the state." Whatever makes for human well-being both in time and eternity is a legitimate object of Church sympathy, enthusiasm and endeavor.

OFFICERS OF CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE

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THE C. L. S. C. "EASY FOR ANYBODY."

If you are a new Chautauquan beginning your course this year, you are doubtless starting out with enthusiasm. Perchance with the ardor of a new convert, you are setting a pace for yourself rather too strenuous for a busy world, and so may begin to flag early in the race. Hence this word of suggestion that you may get the most out of your four years' venture. The C. L. S. C. course is for rest and enjoyment, and "rest" is a word of large meaning in the vocabulary of grown men and women. It is sometimes spelled "growth" or "inspiration" or "vision." So the course must not be made a task or it will speedily lose its charm. The phrases "College Outlook" and "School for out-of-School People" as applied to the C. L. S. C. suggest to some the thought of rigid rules and recitations. But "out-of-school people" are a privileged class who have met life and developed individuality and the C. L. S. C. recognizes this fact. So you are free to select your own methods; to read for the joy of the reading,—and as much or as little as you choose. Four books in a year represent a small undertaking. But the "School" which prescribes them has chosen them with care and at the end of the four years you will realize that your mental growth has been an "all round" one.

Interior of Library at Wellsville, N. Y.

City Hall, Wellsville, New York, where the public library is situated at present.

Typical Residence in Santiago, Chile.

Typical Views in Santiago Chile, as seen by a resident member of the C. L. S. C. Class of '08.

Dr. Emil Reich.

A few years ago a young ranchman read the four years' course of the C. L. S. C. while tending a herd of sheep on the lonely plains of the far West. He had no books of reference, no "Circle" with whose members he could discuss his books. He simply read and enjoyed them and they opened a great new world to him. When he came back home to his college-trained sister and her companions he entered into their world as naturally as if his "campus" had been in the midst of ivy clad buildings instead of on the wind swept plains of Wyoming.

DR. EMIL REICH.

The author of the first book for the coming year, "Foundations of Modern Europe," is Dr. Emil Reich of Esperjes, Hungary. Dr. Reich studied at the Universities of Prague, Budapest, and Vienna, and holds the degree of Doctor of Law. Up to his thirtieth year he studied almost exclusively in libraries, but later as he mentions in his preface to "Foundations of Modern Europe," he visited various countries in order that he might observe and study nationalities at first hand. He spent five years in the United States, four in France, and has been with interruptions for almost nine years in England. He has lectured frequently at Oxford, Cambridge, and London Universities, and was employed by the British government to prepare its side of the case in the Venezuela boundary affair. He is the author of a number of publications, among them a History of Civilization; Hungarian Literature; Success among Nations; The Foreigner in History; several historical atlases, etc.

Mr. George Wharton Edwards.

MR. GEORGE WHARTON EDWARDS.

Mr. George W. Edwards, whose "Reading Journey Through the Hollow Land" begins with this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, was born in Fair Haven, Conn. He received his academic education in Antwerp and in Paris. He has been awarded numerous medals both here and abroad for his painting and also for his work in black and white, as he is one of the best known of our present day illustrators. For five years he was director of the Art Department of *Collier's Magazine* and is now connected with the American Banknote Company. He is a member of the American Water Color Society, the National Sculpture Society, the New York Water Color Club, the Author's Club, the Ex-Libris Society of London, and the Society "Amsterdamsch" of the Netherlands.

He painted a mural decoration entitled Hendrik Hudson for the West Point Military Academy and is the author of a number of charming sketches,—"Break O'Day and Other Stories," "Thumb Nail Sketches," "P'tit Matinic Monotones," etc. He has illustrated Oliver Wendell Holmes' "Last Leaf," Spenser's "Epithalamium," and "Old English Love Songs" and "Old English Ballads."

THE FIRST BOOK OF THE YEAR.

Don't make the mistake of thinking that you must know all the facts to which Professor Reich alludes in his "Foundations of Modern Europe" in order to enjoy and find profit in it. Few people except trained historical scholars could explain every one of the author's allusions. In most cases the facts are given with sufficient fullness to show what the writer is endeavoring to bring out. Try to get the chief ideas which he emphasizes in each chapter and you will find great enjoyment in his arguments and conclusions. Get someone to read it with you if possible. You may disagree with the author and you will want someone who has read the book to listen while you argue your case!

THE SMALL CIRCLE.

One of the chief advantages of a Chautauqua Circle is the opportunity which it offers for the discussion of subjects in which its members have a newly awakened interest. Many a reader who would be quite appalled at the idea of being quizzed upon his slender store of historical knowledge will quite forget his fears when gently stimulated to a discussion of something which he has been reading. So it is that small informal Circles which can gather about a table have a great opportunity. Under the magic of sympathy, timid students are transformed and the Circle illustrates in its own experience the meaning of education—to lead forth.

ESPERANTO.

A new world language seems to be an inevitable step in the progress of the "Friendship of Nations." Whether Esperanto proves itself to be the language or not, such a laudable attempt is entitled to a hearing. Hence the last pages of THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month will be turned into an Esperanto school for Chautauquans who are of an experimental turn of mind. Some readings or question matches or other diversions in Esperanto may fittingly occupy a brief space at the close of a Circle meeting.

As the edition of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September, 1906, is very nearly exhausted, the Chautauqua Press will be glad to secure extra copies which may be in a good state of preservation. They will be paid for at the rate of 15 cents per copy. Address Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y.

MAPS

In our studies in European history Circles and individuals will find great pleasure in clearing up their geographical ideas by means of maps. Some circles will enjoy using an outline map and filling in the places about which they are studying. In the case of "Foundations of Modern Europe" and of Holland also, it will be particularly interesting to follow the changes in Europe which have taken place during the last three hundred years. The Chautauqua Press can furnish excellent outline maps of Europe for a small amount.

ILLUSTRATED LECTURES FOR CHAUTAUQUA READERS.

Members of the C. L. S. C. who have enjoyed the articles in THE CHAUTAUQUAN on American Sculpture and American Painting by Miss Edwina Spencer of Buffalo, N. Y., will be glad to know that it will be possible to secure from her a number of illustrated lectures upon topics relating to the C. L. S. C. Course. Circles which want to draw attention to their work for the coming year could, for instance, arrange for the lecture on Dutch Art early in the autumn. This would arouse interest in the subject and induce people either to join the Circle or to take up at home THE CHAUTAUQUAN series by Professor Zug which will present this subject in detail. Such a lecture would enable Circles to extend their influence and be of real service to the community. The sale of tickets would result in a fund which might be devoted to the purchase of books or other Circle projects. If the Circle alone is not strong enough to carry out the plan, coöperation with an Epworth League, or a Woman's Club, or a missionary society might be very feasible. Miss Spencer is especially well qualified for her work as a lecturer. She is a thorough student, is personally familiar with the subjects which she describes, and presents her material in a practical, educational way which leaves a clear impression. She believes that art has a great mission to perform in this country and her enthusiasm easily communicates itself to her audience. Arrangements can be made for these lectures by writing The Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y. Miss Spencer would be glad to visit small communities whenever possible and if necessary would make special terms to such Circles. The following lectures are available. They are illustrated with the stereopticon:

AMERICAN ART. THREE LECTURES.

1. Colonial and Revolutionary Days; the Beginning of a Native Art.

2. The Middle Period: Years of Growth.

3. Contemporary Artists; Present status of American Art.

A continuation and enlargement of last year's course in THE

CHAUTAUQUAN. Illustrated by stereopticon, many of the slides being from rare and inaccessible examples of our native painters and sculptors.

Any one of the following series of three lectures may also be given singly.

I. DUTCH ART.

A single lecture designed to supplement the series of articles on Dutch artists by Professor Zug to be studied in the C. L. S. C. Course for this year. Mr. Zug's work will treat of Holland's great masters; and Miss Spencer's lecture will deal with Dutch Art as a whole, its origin, its gift to mankind, and what it stands for in the story of the world's art.

2. THE DEAD CITIES OF SICILY.

One lecture preparatory to the Classical Year in the C. L. S. C. describing these wonderful cities (such as old Syracuse) built by the ancient Greeks on the glorious island of Sicily, when it formed a part of "Magna Graecia.' These marvelous Grecian remains, surrounded as they now are by all the picturesque beauty of modern Italian life, tell a story of deep interest. Both the material of the lecture and the pictures illustrating it are to be used for the first time in this country.

3. GREECE TODAY.

A single lecture, also bearing on the Classical Year. It is concerned with modern Greece; its government and social conditions, the Greek Church, the Royal Family, scientific research, education, commerce, manufacture, the Greek men and women of today. The pictures are unique, gathered throughout Greece, and showing Greek scenery, cities, customs and costumes.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We study the Word and the Works of God."
"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY — November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY — January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY — May 18.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY — August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR OCTOBER.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Part I. The Present European Equilibrium.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter I. The War of American Independence as a European Struggle, to page 14.

SECOND WEEK—OCT. 8-15.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter I. The War of American Independence as a European Struggle, concluded.

THIRD WEEK—OCT. 15-22.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapters II and III. The French Revolution.

FOURTH WEEK—OCT. 22-29.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "A Reading Journey in Holland." Chapter I. Holland in History, page 40.

"Dutch Art and Artists." Chapter I. Frans Hals and the portrait.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Discussion: Professor Emil Reich and his point of view. (See Preface and Round Table.)
2. Brief Oral Reports, with map review on: The Wars of the "Spanish Succession," the "Austrian Succession," and the "Seven Years War," showing the cause of each and the territorial changes which were brought about. A rough sketch map should pe prepared which will make vivid the state of Europe at these different periods. (Maps will be found in histories of Europe, encyclopedias, etc. See also Round Table.)
3. Review and Discussion of first fourteen pages of "Foundations of Modern Europe," bringing out the chief points made by the author.
4. Roll Call: Answered by quotations from all available American histories tending to prove or disprove the assertions of Professor Reich regarding their statements of the cause of the American Revolution. (An interesting book in this connection is "American History and its Geographic Conditions," by Miss Ellen F. Semple.)
5. Review and Discussion of "The Present European Equilibium."
6. Reading: Selections from recent articles in magazines or reviews bearing upon the "European Equilibrium" or from Jean DeBloch's "The Future of War."

SECOND WEEK.

1. Review of last half of Chapter I in "Foundations of Modern Europe."
2. Discussion of unusual words in the entire chapter.
3. Reading of Rousseau's "Emile" with reading of selections from it.
4. Roll Call: Mention two statements made in this chapter which seem to you especially worth remembering.

5. Study of the article on Frans Hals. Each member should be assigned one of the pictures described, showing how it illustrates the artist's characteristics. All other available pictures should be secured. The monograph on "Hals" in the "Masters in Art Series" (Bates & Guild, Boston, Mass.) contains ten fine half-tones and can be secured for twenty cents. Many good pictures can be found in old magazines.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Brief Character Studies: Mirabeau, Louis XVI., Danton, Robespierre, Madame Roland, and St. Just.
2. Review and Discussion of the French Revolution, omitting details and bringing out clearly the significant steps in its progress.
3. Reading: Browning's "The Lost Leader" with explanation of its significance; Selection from Carlyle's "French Revolution."
4. Book Review: "The Reds of the Midi," by Felix Gras.
5. Oral Report: Victor Hugo's "Ninety-Three," a phase of the French Revolution—see sketch in the C. L. S. C. book for this year, "Studies in European Literature."
6. Reading: Selection from "Ninety-Three."
7. Roll Call: Current Events relating to happenings in Europe.

FOURTH WEEK.

Note: One or more programs each month will be devoted to Holland and the several periods of its history studied in detail. William of Orange and his time, events associated with the Pilgrims, etc., though referred to in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be treated in later programs.

1. Brief review of the Reading Journey to page 40 through the time of William the Silent, summing up the significant features of Dutch history.
2. Oral Reports or Papers: Holland and the House of Burgundy; The Early influence of the towns upon Dutch life; the Great Privilege. (See "Brave Little Holland," W. E. Griffis, "The Story of Holland," Rogers, "Holland and the Hollanders," Meldrum, and encyclopedia accounts of the Hanseatic League, etc.)
3. Map Review of Holland showing its general relation to Europe at the successive periods of its history. (See Round Table.)
4. Roll Call: National Characteristics of the Hollander. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country" and all available books.)
5. Reading: Selection from Chapter I of "Holland and its People," by De Amicis (a very charming book and though written some years ago, the acknowledged classic on Holland.)
6. Discussion: Let each member bring an answer to the question, "In what respects has Holland influenced the world?"

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special Programs for graduate Circles and Clubs Specializing upon the two Dutch Series. (A copy of Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs.)

FIRST WEEK.

1. Quiz: On the Reading Journey, Part I to page 40 through the time of William the Silent. (The summary in this first article gives a general view, the details of which will be brought out in later programs.)

2. Map Review of Holland showing its general relation to the rest of Europe at the successive periods of its history.
3. Roll Call: National Characteristics of the Hollander. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country" and all available books.)
4. Oral Reports or Papers: Holland and the House of Burgundy; The Great Privilege; The Early influence of the towns upon Dutch life. (See "The Story of Holland," by Rogers, "Brave little Holland," by W. E. Griffis, encyclopedia accounts of the Hanseatic League, "Holland and the Hollanders," by Meldrum, etc.)
5. Reading: Selection from Chapter I of "Holland and its People," by De Amicis. (A very charming book and, though written years ago, the acknowledged classic on Holland.)

SECOND WEEK.

1. Character Sketch: Charles the V. (See "The Story of Holland," Rogers, histories of Europe, encyclopedias, etc.)
2. Reading: Selections from article entitled "Strange Lineage of a Royal Baby," *Cosmopolitan*, 43:465, September, 1907.
3. Oral Report: The work of Motley as historian of the Netherlands.
4. Paper: Philip II. (See all available histories, encyclopedias, etc.)
5. Oral Reports: Character Sketches of Alva, Don John of Austria, and Alexander of Parma.
6. Paper: William of Orange. (See Library Shelf, encyclopedias, and histories.)
7. Reading: The Assassination of William of Orange. (See Library Shelf in this Magazine.)
8. Roll Call: Answers to the question "Why does William of Orange take rank as one of the world's great men?"
9. Reading: From Chapter of Delft in De Amicis' "Holland and its People," containing references to William of Orange.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Roll Call: Answered by naming educational or religious leaders of the Netherlands from the fourteenth to the sixteenth century and for what each was famous. (See "Brave Little Holland," by W. E. Griffis.)
2. Map Review of Europe in the sixteenth century, especially Germany, the Netherlands, and France.
3. Paper: In what Respects was Holland ahead of other Countries in the Time of William the Silent? (See Bibliography.)
4. Oral Report: Why did Protestantism take one form in Germany and another in Holland?
6. Pronunciation Match on proper names in Chapter I of the Reading Journey. (In the October CHAUTAUQUAN will be found a list of Dutch proper names and their pronunciation.)

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Oral Reports: The Dutch Anabaptists; William Brewster; William Bradford. (See "The Pilgrims in their Three Homes," W. E. Griffis.)
2. Paper: The Pilgrims in Amsterdam. (See above.)
3. Map Review: Showing various localities in England and Holland associated with the Pilgrims.
4. Paper: Social Life of the Pilgrims in Leyden. (See above.)

5. Oral Reports: The Synod of Dordrecht in 1618; when and why and how the Pilgrims emigrated.
6. Roll Call: Explanation of pictures of places in Holland connected with the Pilgrims.

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS.

CHAPTER I. THE PRESENT EUROPEAN EQUILIBRIUM.

1. What is meant by the European equilibrium? 2. By what influences are nations chiefly governed? 3. What do the friendly visits of sovereigns and the enormous European armies signify as to the peace of Europe? 4. What combinations at present support the European balance? 5. To what recent events may this "balance" be traced? 6. What were the objects of the "Triple Alliance" as first planned between Germany and Austria? 7. When and why did Italy join it? 8. What secret treaty of Bismarck's was denounced by this alliance? 9. How were the other European nations affected by the Triple Alliance? 10. Describe "the affair of 1875" and its result. 11. What change in European relations have occurred since 1901? 12. What conditions led to the forming of an Anglo-Japanese alliance in 1902? 13. What did the treaty secure? 14. What statesmen later brought about the Anglo-French alliance? 15. What subjects were discussed in the three conventions which led up to this treaty? 16. What was the most important feature of this Anglo-French alliance? 17. Why was the Morocco situation a delicate one? 18. What is the present state of the question? 19. When and by whom was the Anglo-Russian Convention signed? 20. What three sets of questions does it include? 21. What were the general conclusions reached in the case of each? 22. What effect had this treaty upon India? 23. What are the really effective guaranties of peace?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW-LAND."

CHAPTER I.

1. Sketch briefly the history of Holland previous to the fifteenth century. 2. How did the country become subject to the Duke of Burgundy? 3. Trace the family connections which brought Holland under the power of Spain. 4. What treatment did Holland receive at the hands of Charles V.? 5. What further indignities did Philip II. heap upon the country? 6. What champions of the people's liberty now arose and what did they demand? 7. What was Philip's response? 8. How did the Dutch people secure their independence? 9. Who was William the Silent? 10. Against what odds did he have to contend? 11. Sum up the chief events from the death of William to the peace of Westphalia. 12. Describe Holland's various struggles with England in the seventeenth century for naval supremacy. 13. What was Holland's ill fated connection with France from 1795-1815? 14. Why did the union of Belgium in 1815 prove disastrous? 15. Who were the immediate ancestors of Queen Wilhelmina? 16. What was Prince Henry's title before his marriage? 17. What two elements in the Dutch civilization account for its great influence? 18. How did

early Dutch history compare with that of England? 19. How was Holland's influence felt in the Reformation? 20. In what varied ways have the Dutch people proved their genius? 21. What is true of their sense of civic honor? 22. Illustrate Holland's attitude toward freedom of trade? 23. How do Dutchman and American seem to resemble each other?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS.

1. When do we find the first distinctive school of Dutch art? 2. What were the characteristics of the painting that preceded it? 3. What are the characteristics of the first great Dutch painting? 4. Why is Hals remarkable as a portrait painter? 5. When and where did Hals live? 6. What paintings other than portraits has Hals left us? 7. What were the Shooting Companies? 8. What great difficulties did the painting of the Shooting Companies present? 9. Who was Judith Leyster? 10. How does her work resemble that of Hals?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What is meant by Russian nihilism? 2. Who is Mr. Henry Norman? 3. How did France secure possession of Tunis? 4. Who is the present Chancellor of the German Empire? 5. Who are the present Ambassadors of Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Italy, and Austria to the United States? 6. Name the present Premier and also the President of the French Republic.

1. What was the Order of the Golden Fleece? 2. How extensive was the Dukedom of Burgundy in the fifteenth century? 3. What were some of the important provisions of the "Great Privilege?" 4. Who were the Beggars of the Sea? 5. What was the Massacre of Bartholomew?

1. Who was Van Dyke? 2. What are some of his most famous paintings?

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

The first session of the Round Table for the New Year brought out a large delegation of Chautauquans. New members of the Class of 1912, enthusiastic and full of eager curiosity, reported themselves ready for work. "I am reminded," said Pendragon as he congratulated the new readers, "of the advice an experienced settlement worker once gave to a young enthusiast about to enter a new field in a distant city. She did not say 'Keep up your courage,' or 'Cling to your ideals' or any of those phrases which we sometimes seem to thing are indispensable to the young novitiate, but 'Don't take yourself too seriously!' It's rather a good motto for Chautauquans for sometimes we are in danger of surrounding ourselves with such an atmosphere of serious study that our friends are repelled by our very intensity.

"These two photographs," said Pendragon, "have been sent by an individual reader in Santiago, Chile. They show some of the attractive features of that city. Miss Sailer is a member of the

class of 1908 and has been teaching English History. She writes, 'The studies of the English Year have broadened my knowledge and in this way have deepened the interest of my class. I wait eagerly for the arrival of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. It is such a convenient size that I often read the numbers as I travel in the street car.' It would seem that people in Chile find it necessary to save time as much as we do in America," commented Pendragon as he opened another letter.

"A year ago," he continued," "you will remember that when we held our 'library' meeting at this time, I told you of the efforts of a reader in Osceola, New York, to secure good reading for a little hamlet where the small library established in her own store represented the chief intellectual center of the region round about. As public opinion did not always sustain her efforts to secure a state traveling library, it was suggested that some of the circles might be glad to lend a hand. I've just received this letter which shows in what friendly fashion the circles responded. Miss Mary L. Cowles writes as follows:"

"We had another 'Traveling Library' during the winter and spring and I think we never have had one that was used more than this one. One boy aged about eighteen read all the books in both libraries (seventy-five volumes), excepting a few of the very deepest. Through the kindness of Chautauquans we have received quite a nucleus of a library. One lady in Ohio sent a number of volumes and magazines which we used in our Circle last winter. I wrote, thanking her for her help and my letter was returned unclaimed. She gave only her initials. A lady in Vermont was the second to respond. She sent several good books and magazines. She said she had taken her course alone, being unable to interest others in her town, and she almost envied those who had congenial people to read with them. The next installment came from a gentleman who is a member of a Circle at Canandaigua, New York. He sent several volumes of the Chautauqua Reading Course, besides several other good books, and also magazines and papers. The last gift came from a Circle at Mount Vernon, New York, and like the other boxes, contained both books and magazines, all of them good to add to our library. We now have almost fifty volumes, and many magazines and papers. These are not yet ready for circulation, but we expect to get them ready to circulate next month. One gentleman who has a summer home here has promised us some books, and I know of a few others who I think will help us a little when they know of our effort to get a library. If you would like a list of the books we have I will send it. We are grateful to those who have so kindly responded to your suggestion. We feel quite encouraged, and think a library here is a possibility. I am very anxious to have a boys' club of some sort during the coming winter. The influences here in the wrong direction are very strong, and we must try to do something to turn the tide. I think we could arrange to have a reading room in a vacant house, but do not know of anyone to take charge of it."

"The wealth of good reading matter," commented Pendragon,

"which many of us throw aside thoughtlessly would keep many a little village supplied with interesting reading. Every circle through its members or elsewhere can find some such center. Why not have a regular meeting toward the close of each year when members may bring such books and magazines as they or their friends can spare and send them to some designated address. In many families children grow up, and move away, leaving books which they do not care to take. Libraries often make their way to some old book store when many of their contents have real present day value. The gifts of a few circles have put 'courage' into a struggling librarian. Don't drop the work now but keep in friendly touch with Miss Cowles."

"You asked last year," said a delegate from Wellsville, New York, "about our Public Library which developed from a Chautauqua Circle. I'm sending you some photographs which will show how it looks at present, for our library is housed in the City Hall. We hope next year to be able to introduce you to our beautiful new building." At Pendragon's request the speaker, Miss Lillian Carpenter, gave some further details. "Our library," she said, "has been the special work of the Monday Club but we trace our pedigree straight back to the early days of Chautauqua when Mr. and Mrs. J. H. Brown of our village spent the summer at the Assembly and were present at the inauguration of the C. L. S. C. They were among the first to join and the Chautauqua Circle established on their return continued to meet for some twenty-five years. In '90-1 when the Circle was studying an 'English Year' a few members held an extra meeting each week for the special study of Shakespeare. The Club thus started proved so interesting that two years later we took the name of Monday Club and became a formal organization. For years the need of a public library had been discussed among us and at this time it came to a focus. The Academy Library had been destroyed by fire but the books of an extinct 'Wellsville Library Association' were at the disposal of the club. The ideas of the club were too altruistic for such narrow scope for a public library was our ideal although the impression had gone abroad that the library was to be for the sole benefit of the Monday Club and much tact was required to overcome various forms of opposition. At nearly every meeting something was done towards the promotion of the cherished idea, our state law concerning the establishment of town libraries was studied and soon we had one of the famous New York State Traveling Libraries, which, by the courtesy of the school board, was placed in one of the unused schoolrooms while the City Hall was being built. It was in charge of the Monday Club,—they were caretakers. In 1894 two hundred

dollars were received from the state for the purchase of books. This appropriation was based upon the value of the books from the old library and those donated by individuals. Of course the founding of a Free Public Library is no small undertaking. Time, toil, patience, and perseverance were required to accomplish such a work. The next year a large sum was added to the library fund by a course of lectures and the club was given the use of a commodious room in the City Hall. The public began at once to show its interest by coming in large numbers for the loan of books. Our city is now giving five hundred dollars yearly for its support and the Monday Club is custodian of the finest Free Public Library in this section of the state. At first it was open for only two days each week but since 1898 it has been open two hours each week day and three hours on Sunday as a reading room.

"During these years we have been slowly accumulating a fund for the proper housing of our library in a home of its own. Our worthy president has trained us to such habits of thrift as welcomed the smallest of additions to our store. Such modest sources of revenue as penny collections and the sale of old rubbers have not been despised while large sums have been added by entertainments or by personal gifts. Our president's significant reticence on several occasions when the library fund was under discussion led us to suspect her of cherishing a secret we might be glad to share. She betrayed no other hint of it, however, until her return from Florida last year, when she announced that Mr. David A. Howe of Williamsport, Pa., a former resident of Wellsville, had offered to give $15,000 for the erection of a library building as soon as a suitable site should be secured. You can imagine the state of mind of the Monday Club! A very desirable corner lot has now been purchased, plans for a handsome modern building have been accepted and we will soon have a permanent home for our Free Public Library which in these fourteen years has grown from nothing to 8,600 volumes, supplying some 2,000 readers in this and surrounding towns. It is the pride of our city and a factor for better conditions in our community. This is one of the victories of peace and we venture to believe develops character as certainly as if it had been wrought by martial music, swords, and guns. Our club motto has now for us a new significance, "The end crowns the work."

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN EUROPE.

The following Review Questions upon "Foundations of Modern Europe" cover the entire volume, though only three chapters are assigned for study in October. Members may find it convenieat to remove these pages and paste them in the book itself.

CHAPTER I. THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

1. In what respects has the influence of France in the American War of Independence been underestimated by Americans? 2. What has been true also of the English attitude? 3. Why have the French failed to emphasize this influence? 4. Why should the American Revolution be looked upon as an international event? 5. Why has Europe since 1815 avoided international wars? 6. What great international wars took place in the eighteenth century? 7. What similar causes promoted the unity of Italy and the American War of Independence? 8. What ideal motives are usually attributed to the rebellious colonists in the American Revolution? 9. Why did the Americans cheerfully join the British against the French from 1755 to 1762? 10. How did the American "Hinterland" compare with that of other countries? 11. What predictions were made regarding American secession from England? 12. What was the true secret of American opposition to Great Britain? 13. Contrast the position of Lord Chatham after 1763 with that of Bismarck in 1866. 14. Why was France "almost more dangerous when on the defensive?" 15. Show why the course pursued by Maria Theresa in 1756 was wise and that of the French government weak. 16. How did Katharine II. of Russia show her political wisdom at about this time? 17. Why was it unnecessary for England to keep up her attitude of rancor toward France? 18. Why unwise? 19. Why was the influence of the Encyclopaedists so far reaching? 20. Who was Beaumarchais? 21. By what means did he accomplish his purpose of revenge? 22. What recognition has his work received? 23. What was the strategic problem of the War of Independence? 24. Show the importance of the struggle off Cape Henry. 25. Show how battles which are not dramatic have sometimes had far reaching influences.

CHAPTER II. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION. (1.)

1. Why is the French Revolution the most important event of modern history? 2. What different forms did the Revolution assume in France and in Germany? 3. In what general respects was the reign of Louis XVI. superior to that of Louis XV.? 4. What criticism is made of the statements of Arthur Young? 5. Illustrate the fact that the different parts of France had little in common in the seventeenth century. 6. How and why had this changed by the time of Louis XVI.? 7. What effect had this upon the education of the people? 8. What significance had la grande peur? 9. What were the conspicuous qualities of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette? 10. In what respects was Mirabeau a remarkable man? 11. Who formed the famous National Assembly? 12. What important point was carried by the third estate? 13. How was the importance of the French Revolution underestimated at this period? 14. What remarkable event took place on August 4, 1789? 15. Why did the French Revolution arouse such interest in the neighboring governments?

CHAPTER III. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION. (2.)

1. What effect did the attempted flight of Louis XVI. have upon the French people? 2. By what dangers were they menaced? 3. Why and how did the powers misconstrue the situation in France? 4. What was the famous proclamation of the Duke of Brunswick? 5. What were the September Massacres? 6. What similar illustration of the mob spirit was shown in England during

her civil war? 7. What was the effect of the battle of Valmy? 8. What great spectacle did France present at this time? 9. How can "The Terror" be explained? 10. What important service was rendered by the Committee of Public Safety? 11. What were some of the great reforms instituted by the "Convention?" 12. What striking personalities show the tremendous energy which displayed itself in France at this time? 13. How did the army come to dominate the country?

CHAPTER IV. NAPOLEON. (1.)

1. In what respects was Napoleon a complex character? 2. Why is it impossible to estimate him truly? 3. What influence may his Corsican origin have had upon Napoleon? 4. Show how Napoleon was the natural culmination of the French Revolution. 5. Describe his personal qualities. 6. To what causes are his military successes due? 7. Why are they considered "classical campaigns?" 8. Who were some of the monarchs and statesmen pitted against Napoleon at different times? 9. What was, in general, the cause of his overthrow? 10. What influences first made him general-in-chief of the Italian army? 11. How did his genius show itself in his Lombardy campaign? 12. What influence had this success upon him?

CHAPTER V. NAPOLEON. (2.)

1. What circumstances led to Napoleon's invasion of Egypt? 2. What peculiar influence did Egypt exercise upon him? 3. What led him to abandon this field? 4. What victories did he achieve in the next three years? 5. By what two great processes did he help to prepare the way for German unity? 6. What work did he do for French education? 7. Describe his share in constructing the famous Code Napoleon. 8. How has the code influenced other countries? 9. Why did France receive the news of the victory at Austerlitz with relative coldness? 10. Compare the attitude of France toward Jeanne d'Arc and Napoleon. 11. When and how did the Holy Roman Empire fall? 12. How did Napoleon's victories at Jena and Auerstaedt reveal the weakness of Prussia? 13. How did Napoleon deal with Poland? 14. In what way does this seem to have been a blunder? 15. How was Prussia reorganized?

CHAPTER VI. NAPOLEON. (3.)

1. Why is it difficult to estimate fairly plans of Napoleon which seem unwise? 2. How long did Europe believe in the invincibility of Napoleon? 3. What may be said of England's view that she saved Europe from Napoleon? 4. What points does our author make regarding Wellington's campaign in Spain? 5. How did the Spanish in the Peninsular War dig their own grave? 6. Why did Austria declare war upon Napoleon at this time. 7. Describe the three sections of this campaign. 8. Compare Napoleon's attitude toward human life with that of other European sovereigns at this time. 9. Who was Metternich? 10. How was the sinister influence of the Hapsburgs borne out by the experience of Napoleon? 11. What can be said of Napoleon's oriental dream? 12. What principles of strategy did Napoleon consciously violate in going to Russia? 13. Why was Russia not worth having at this time? 14. What possibilities did Turkey present?

CHAPTER VII. NAPOLEON. (4.)

1. Why were the sovereigns insincere in their claim to be

liberating Europe by destroying Napoleon? 2. What countries stood together against him? Were they naturally homogeneous? 3. What two influences resulted in his fall? 4. Why was Austria's attitude toward Napoleon short sighted? 5. Why was Russia's attitude more statesmanlike? 6. What was Prussia's position at this time? 7. How did Napoleon's resources in 1813 compare with those of his enemies? 8. What strange error did he make at this time? 9. Describe the campaign around Dresden. 10. How were his attempts at peace negotiations thwarted? 11. What was the Battle of the Nations and its result? 12. Why were Napoleon's campaigns of the Seine barren successes? 13. What influences in France were working against him? 14. What different qualities of the nation came to the front at this time? 15. Illustrate the extraordinary attitude of Napoleon's friends at his abdication. 16. How did Louis XVIII. show his Bourbon characteristics? 17. How does the French Revolution compare with other great revolutions? 18. Describe the return of Napoleon and his attempt to regain the confidence of France. 19. Describe the events of June 16 and 18, 1815. 20. Why is it probable that a victory by Napoleon at Waterloo would not have saved him?

CHAPTER VIII. THE REACTION.

1. With what purpose did the sovereigns of Europe meet at Vienna in 1814? 2. What characteristics were here exhibited by the Prussian Humboldt? 3. At what points were the interests of the Powers clashing? 4. By what decisions did Talleyrand succeed in guiding the congress to the advantage of France? 5. What part did Metternich play? 6. Show how the unwritten legislation of the congress was its worst feature. 8. What deep laid plans did Alexander of Russia attempt to exploit at Aix-la-Chapelle? 9. How were Italy and Spain treated? 10. What was the mental state of the people in Germany and Austria at this time? 11. Describe the Greek revolt in 1829. 12. What relation do we find in Europe between political events and intellectual movements? 13. How may "classical literature" be defined? 14. How did the Romantic movement in Europe differ in general from the classical ideal? 15. Illustrate this in the case of the poetry of this time. 16. How does this same condition apply to music? 17. Illustrate it in the case of Chopin. 18. How was the Romantic movement felt in philosophy? 19. What admirable results did it accomplish in historical research? 20. What great French novelist arose at this time? 21. In what does his greatness consist?

CHAPTER IX. THE REVOLUTIONS.

1. How and why does the attitude of France toward freedom of the press differ from that of England? 2. What caused the revolution of 1830 in France? 3. What great influence did it have upon other parts of Europe? 4. How did the character of Louis-Philippe reveal itself in various events of his reign? 5. Why was the revolution of 1848 the result? 6. What other countries at once rose in revolt? 7. What two reasons make the Hungarian revolution one of first importance? 8. What great qualities had Kossuth? 9. Give the tragic tale of the Hungarian Revolution. Why was it not a complete failure? 10. Why did the revolutions in Austria and Austrian Italy fail? 11. What scientific interest had meanwhile been cultivated in France? 12. What French thinker now turned philosophical thought in a new direction? 13. What were some of the ideas set forth in his philosophy? 14. What men

and countries have been influenced by his thinking? 15. What famous German also contributed much to the study of the exact sciences at this time? 16. Describe the influence of Darwin. 17. What were some of the unwholesome influences of this period of positive science?

CHAPTER X. THE UNITY OF ITALY.

1. What five groups of political events in Europe belong to the years from 1851 to 1871? 2. What great changes in the position of the various powers took place in these years? 3. What striking fact is true of Italian unity in Roman times compared with Italian unity in 1871? 4. How did both Italian character and circumstances work against the unity of the country? 5. What was the policy of Cavour? 6. Why did he send Italian troops to the Crimea? 7. How did the exploit of Orsini aid Cavour's plans? 8. What was Napoleon III.'s idea of the Unity of Italy? 9. Why did Cavour acquiesce in this view? 10. What were the results of Magenta and Solferino? 11. How did Napoleon's seeming treachery affect the Italians? 12. How was the unity of the nation finally accomplished?

CHAPTER XI. THE UNITY OF GERMANY.

1. Why does the Roman ideal of a European nation seem unlikely? 2. Show how the different nations have gradually established themselves on the basis of a common language. 3. Describe the political confusion which existed under the Holy Roman Empire. 4. What degrading social conditions existed in Germany? 5. Show how German unity first grew up through German literature. 6. What was the effect upon Germans of the disasters of 1805-7? 7. What peculiar national conditions have always existed under the Hapsburgs? 8. Show how the Silesian Wars of Frederick the Great have had a great influence upon Germany and Austria. 9. Compare Prussia and Austria in 1850 as to their fitness to unite Germany. 10. How did other great men in Germany prepare the way for Bismarck? 11. What were some of the personal qualities and acquirements which gave Bismarck remarkable command of the political situation? 12. How is his insight into conditions shown in his plans for German unity? 13. Against what adversaries did he have to contend? 14. What two fine qualities are noteworthy in his character? 15. Describe the war with Denmark and show how it contributed to his plans. 16. What was Prussia's attitude to him at this time? 17. How was the incompetence of Austria shown in the war of 1866?

CHAPTER XII. THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.

1. What criticisms have been made upon Bismarck for bringing on the Franco-German war? 2. By what considerations was he prompted? 3. What was the condition of the French army at this time? 4. Why was Napoleon III. unable to cope with the situation? 5. How did France attempt to bring on a war? 6. What can be said of Bismarck's coöperation in this attempt? 7. How did Austria act at this time? 8. What did the war prove as to French generalship? 9. How can this be accounted for? 10. What may be said of Thiers and Gambetta in this crisis? 11. What crushing terms did Bismarck make with France? 12. What was the effect upon Germany.

EPILOGUE.

1. Why has Europe no pretext at present for an international war? 2. Why does Austria survive in spite of internal weaknesses? 3. Compare Europe and America today with respect to homogeneity.

C. L. S. C. COURSE 1908-9	BRIEF MEMORANDA
FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN EUROPE, by Emil Reich. SEEN IN GERMANY, by Ray Stannard Baker. STUDIES IN EUROPEAN LITERATURE. MAN AND THE EARTH, by Nathaniel Southgate Shaler. THE CHAUTAUQUAN, September, 1908, to May 1909, inclusive.	**Containing Twenty-Five Review Questions**

To members: The following pages contain a copy of the list of questions furnished to readers who wish to review the year's course and add seals to their diplomas. They may be used by the reader for his own notes and as a record of his year's work. A duplicate of this pamphlet is mailed at the beginning of the year to all members, subscribers to THE CHAUTAUQUAN of course being so designated. It contains these review questions, printed on a good quality of writing paper, to be answered in ink and returned to Chautauqua Institution for credit. The pamphlet also includes the form of application for the annual certificate, and the blank for securing the "Recognized Reading" seal.

In making use of the review questions you are not required to write the answers from memory, but they shauld be given in your own language.

1. Why should the American Revolution be looked upon as an international event?

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2. Why is the French Revolution the most important event of modern history?

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3. What was the famous proclamation of the Duke of Brunswick?

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4. In what respects was Napoleon a complex character?

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5. By what two great processes did Napoleon help to prepare the way for German unity?

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6. Who was Metternich?

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7. With what purpose did the sovereigns of Europe meet at Vienna in 1814?

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8. What caused the revolution of 1830 in France?

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9. If it is a fact that "mankind is made constant by fight," does this necessarily imply war?

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10. Compare Europe and America today with respect to homogeneity.

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11. What are some of the common things in which Germany improves upon America?

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12. Mention some of the features of the training of a German soldier.

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13. What is the attitude of the German government toward scientific achievement?

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14. Mention some of the unique features of the Stiftung in Jena.

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15. What did Molière seek to accomplish in his comedy of Tartuffe?

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16. How was it received by the community?

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17. What historical foundation have the novels of Dumas?

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18. What did Zola attempt to do in the Rougon-Macquart series?

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19. What is the secret of Schiller's influence in Germany?

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20. Why does the play of Faust possess such intense interest?

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21. Quote some passage by Maeterlinck which shows how important he considers the life of the spirit.

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22. In what locality has Sudermann placed the scenes of most of his novels?

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23. In what different ways is modern man taxing the resources of the earth?

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24. What are the different kinds of solar energy available for man?

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25. What four great valleys in the United States especially lend themselves to irrigation?

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C. L. S. C. COURSE 1908-9	WHITE SEAL MEMORANDA
FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN EUROPE, by Emil Reich. SEEN IN GERMANY, by Ray Stannard Baker. STUDIES IN EUROPEAN LITERATURE. MAN AND THE EARTH, by Nathaniel Southgate Shaler. THE CHAUTAUQUAN, September, 1908, to May, 1909, inclusive.	**Containing** **Seventy-Five** **Review Questions**

Foundations of Modern Europe

1. What was the true secret of American opposition to Great Britain?

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2. Show the importance of the struggle off Cape Henry.

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3. What different forms did the French Revolution assume in France and in Germany?

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4. What remarkable event took place on August 4, 1789?

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5. How can "The Terror" be explained?

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6. What were some of the great reforms instituted by the "Convention?"

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7. Describe Napoleon's personal qualities.

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8. Who were some of the monarchs and statesmen pitted against Napoleon at different times?

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9. What was Napoleon's share in constructing the famous Code Napoleon?

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10. What period of Napoleon's career is marked by the congress of foreign princes at Erfurt in 1808?

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11. What principles of strategy did Napoleon consciously violate in going to Russia?

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12. Why was Russia not worth having at this time?

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13. Why were the sovereigns insincere in their claim to be liberating Europe by destroying Napoleon?

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14. Illustrate the extraordinary attitude of Napoleon's friends at his abdication.

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15. Why was the unwritten legislation of the congress of Vienna its worst feature?

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16. What great influence did it have upon other parts of Europe?

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17. What great qualities had Kossuth?

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18. What was the policy of Cavour?

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19. What causes have prevented Italy from becoming a great nation?

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20. What were some of the personal qualities and acquirements which gave Bismarck remarkable command of the political situation?

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21. Why did he refuse to humiliate Austria unnecessarily in the war of 1866?

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22. What criticisms have been made upon Bismarck for bringing on the Franco-German war?

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23. What important contributions to civilization are made by the diversity of European peoples?

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Seen in Germany

24. Mention some of the common things in Germany which are owned by the government.

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25. What are some of the striking qualities of the Kaiser's character?

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26. How does the German type of soldier differ from his English and American counterparts?

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27. Why is it probable that no civilized workman in the world would change places with the German workman?

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28. How has military service affected the German workingman?

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29. For what achievements is Professor Haeckel distinguished?

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30. What varied qualities has he shown in his long life?

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31. What is the purpose of the Reichsanstalt?

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32. How does it render service to practical mechanics?

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33. What two great industries have been promoted by Dr. Abbe?

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34. How is the best quality of work insured in each?

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35. What are some of Germany's laws relating to ship building?

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36. What progressive methods may be observed in the German schools?

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37. What is true of the recent growth of German cities?

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38. How does the German show that he is alive to world interests?

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Studies in European Literature

39. What event was the origin of the Song of Roland?

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40. What gives Montaigne's essays so high a place in French literature?

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41. What great historical struggle is portrayed in Victor Hugo's "Ninety-Three?"

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42. Who are the most famous French short story writers?

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43. How is Dumas' dramatic skill shown in his novels?

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44. Of what series of stories by Balzac does Eugenie Grandet form a part?

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45. Why has this story exerted such a powerful influence?

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46. What marked contrasts may be noted between the work of George Sand and that of George Eliot?

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47. What were the ruling ideas expressed in George Sand's earlier books?

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48. How is Zola's love of scientific realism shown in "Le Rêve" as in other of his books?

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49. Of what famous plays is M. Rostand the author?

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50. What are some of the characteristics which give the play Cyrano de Bergerac high rank?

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51. How is Lessing looked upon at the present day?

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52. What are the teachings of Nathan the Wise?

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53. What effect did the friendship of Goethe and Schiller have upon each of them?

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54. Why is Goethe considered the master of poets?

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55. Why is the second part of Faust especially difficult to understand?

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56. Quote the lines which set forth Faust's salvation.

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57. What remarkable qualities has Heine's "Book of Songs?"

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58. How have Maeterlinck's later works shown a finer philosophy of life than did his earlier ones?

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59. Why does "The Sunken Bell" seem something more than a simple folk tale?

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60. What noble thought do you feel underlies the play?

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61. How was Sudermann influenced by the ethics of Nietszche?

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62. How was Ibsen influenced by the events of 1870 in Europe?

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63. What effect had "The Pillars of Society" and other plays upon the public?

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64. How have his plays set up a new standard for the theater?

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Man and the Earth

65. Why is man likely to remain upon the earth for a long time?

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66. What possibilities can we forsee in the use of wind?

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67. What difficulties make an "aluminum age" likely to be very far in the future?

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68. What increase in agricultural resources due to irrigation is likely to be brought about within the next century?

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69. In what way may we be able in future to win land from the waters?

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70. State some striking fact regarding the "problem of the Nile."

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71. How has man recklessly destroyed much soil that might be of use to him?

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72. Mention some of the resources of the sea which may be extended in the future.

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73. How is future man likely to become of a higher grade physically?

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74. What would probably happen if a comet struck the earth?

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75. What much-needed change in our methods of teaching science must come in the future?

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A Short Course in Esperanto

I. Vocabulary--Grammar.

Esperanto may be compared to chess. Anyone can learn the moves of the game in half an hour, but knowing the moves does not make a chess player. Still, a great deal of enjoyment may be derived from the practice of the game even in the very early stages, and thus it is with Esperanto. You can learn Esperanto grammar in half an hour; that does not make you an Esperantist, but you can begin to rĕad and to write at once and obtain a great deal of enjoyment while perfecting yourself until you can meet another Esperantist and sustain a conversation with him.

VOCABULARY.

A

a t. of adj. (p. 1)
abat' abbot
abel' bee
abi' fir [(journal)
abon' subscribe
aceŏ' maple
acid' acid, sour
aĉet' buy
ad' d. duration. (6)
adiaŭ good-bye
admir' admire
admon' admoniah
ador' adore
adult' to commit
aer' air [adultery
afabl' affable, kind
afekt' tobenaffected
afer' affair, business matter
afrank' franik a
ag' act [letter
agl' eagle
agord' tune(instr.)
agrabl' agreeable
aĝ' age
ajl' garlic
ajn' ever; *kiu* who *kiu ajn* whoever
aj' d. concrete ideas (p. 6)
akcel' to hasten
akcent' accent [tr.
akcept' accept, welcome
akcipitr' hawk
akir' acquire
akn' pimple [pany
akompan' accom-
akr' sharp [per
akrid' grass-hop-
aks' axle [man
aku' deliver a wo-
akv' water
al to
alaŭd' lark (bird)
ali' other
almenaŭ at least
almoz' alms
alt' high
altern' alternate
alud' allude
alumet' match
am' love [(lucifer)
amas' crowd, mass
ambaŭ both
ambos' anvil
amel' starch
amik' friend
ampleks' extent
amuz' amuse
an' d. member (p. 3)
anas' duck
angil' eel
angul' corner,
anĝel angel[angle
anim' soul
aniaŭ also
aniaraŭ yet, still
anir' anchor
anonc' announce
anser' goose [of
anstataŭ instead
ant' e. of pres. part. act. (p. 4)
antaŭ before
antikv' old (hist.)
apart' separate, adj.
aparten' belong
apenaŭ scarcely
aper' appear
apog' lean (vb.)
April' April
aprob' approve
apud near, by
ar' d. collection (6)
arane' spider
arb' tree
ard' bow, fiddle
ardel' heron
ardez' slate
argil' clay
argent' silver
ark' arch, bow
art' art
artifik' cunning
artik' joint [(p. 4)
as e. of pres. tense
at' e. of pr. part. pas.
atak' attack [(4)
atend' attempt
atend' wait, expect
atent' attentive
atest' attest certify
ating' attain, ar-
aŭt' trump [rive at
aŭ or, *aŭ . aŭ* either . . or
aŭd' hear
Aŭgust' August
aŭskult' listen
aŭtun' autumn
av' grandfather
avar' covetous
avel' hazel nut
aven' oats
aventur' adventure
avert' warn [for
avid' covet, eager
azen' ass, donkey
azot' nitrogen

B

babil' chatter
bagatel' trifle
bak' bake
bala' sweep
balanc' sway, swing, (tr.)
balbut' stammer
baldaŭ soon
balen' whale
ban' bathe (tr.)
bant' bow (of ribb.)
bapt' baptize
bar' bar, obstruct
barakt' struggle
barb' beard
barbir' barber
barel' keg, barrel
bask' coat tail
baston' stick
bat' beat
batal' fight
bed' bed (garden)
bedaŭr' pity, re-
bek' beak [gret
bel' beautiful, fine
ben' bless
benk' bench
ber' berry
best' beast, animal
betul' birch (tree)
bezon' need, want
bien' goods, estate
bier' beer
bind' bind (books)
birdʼ bird
blank' white
blek' cry (of beasts)
blind' blind
blond' fair (of hair)
blov' blow
blu' blue [riage (5)
bo' d. relat. by mar-
boat' boat
baf' bark (dog's)
bol' boil (intr.)
bon' good
bor' bore (tr.)
bord' shore, bank
border' border hem
bors' bourse, ex-
bot' boot [change
botel' bottle
bov' ox
brak' arm
bram' bream
brand' branch
brand' brandy (prod. of still)
brasik' cabbage
bret' shelf
brid' bridle
brik' brick
bril' shine (intr.)
brod' embroider
brog' scald
bros' brush
bru' noise
brul' burn (intr.)
brun' brown
brust' chest, breast
brut' brute, cattle
bub' lad, urchin
buĉ' slaughter
bud' toad
bukl' ringlet, curl
bul' clod, ball
bulb' bulb, onion
bulk' roll (bread)
burd' drone (ins.)
burĝ' citizen
burĝon' bud
bus' mouth
butar' butter
butik' shop
buton' button

C

ced' to yield
cejan' cornflower
cel' aim, object
cend' cent (coin)
cent hundred
cerb' brain, mind
cert' certain, sure
cerv' deer [ing
cesar' rest, remain-
cifer' cypher, nu-
cigar' cigar [meral
cigared' cigarette
cign' swan
cikon' stork
cim' bug
cindr' ash, cinder
cir' shoe-polish
cirkonstanc' circumstance
cirkuler' circular
cit' cite, mention
citron' lemon
col' inch

Ĉ

ĉagren' grieve(tr.)
ĉambr' room
ĉan' cock (of a gun)
ĉap' cap
ĉapel' hat
ĉapitr' chapter
ĉar for, because
ĉarlatan' charla-
ĉarm' charm [tan
ĉarnir' hinge
ĉarpent' carpentry
ĉas' hunt, chase
ĉast' chaste
ĉe at, with
ĉef' chief
ĉemiz' shirt
ĉen' chain
ĉeriz' cherry
ĉerk' coffin
ĉerp' draw (from any source)
ĉes' cease, desist
ĉeval' horse
ĉi d. proximity: *tie* there, *tie ĉi* here
ĉia every (kind)
ĉiam always
ĉieverywhere[ner
ĉiel in every man-
ĉiel' heaven, sky
ĉies everybody's
ĉif' crumple, crease
ĉifon' rag
ĉikan' chicanery
ĉio everything, all
ĉiom all of it [out
ĉirkaŭ round, ab-
ĉiu each, every one
ĉiz' chisel, carve
ĉ' d. masc. affect. diminutives (p. 6)
ĉu whether; asks a question

D

da is used instead of *de* after words expressing weight or measure: *funt'o da viand'o* a pound of meat
dakti' date (fruit)
danc' dance
dand' dandy
dang'er' danger
dank' thank
dat' date (time)
daŭr' endure, last
de of, from, with pass. part. *by*
dec' becoming
Decembr' Dec'ber
decid' décide (tr.)
dedifr' decypher
dedi' dedicate
defend' defend
degel' thaw
dejor' be on duty
dek ten
dekliv' slope
dekstr' right-hand
delir' be delirious
demand' ask
dens' dense, close
dent' tooth
denunc' denounce
dependi' depend
des the (*ju . . des*) the . . the)
desegn' design
detal' detail
detru' destroy
dev' must, *dev'ig* compel
deviz' device, motto
dezert' (the) desert
dezir' desire, wish
Di' God
diabl' devil
diboŝ' debauchery
difekt' to damage
diferenc' differ
difin' define, des-
digu' dike [tine
dik' thick, stout
dikt' dictate
diligent' diligent
dimanĉ' Sunday
dir' say, tell
direkt' direct, steer
dis' d. separ (p. 5)
distanc' discount
dispoz' dispose
disput' dispute
distingu' distinguish
distr' distract
diven' divine, guess
divers' various, di-
divid' divide [verse
do then, according-
dolĉ' sweet [ly
dolor' pain, ache
dom' house
domaĝ' (it is a) pity
don' give [sent
donac' make pre-
dorlot' coddle
dorm' sleep
dorn' thorn
dors' (the) back
dot' dowry
drap' woolen cloth
draŝ' thrash
dres' train (anim.)
drink' drink (in ex-
drog' drug [cess
dron' drown, sink
du two
dub' doubt
duk' duke [whilst
dum' during, while,
dung' hire (servant)

E

e t. of adv. (p. 5)
eben' even, smooth
ebl' d. possibility (6)
ec' d. abst. idea. (6)
ĉ even (adv.)
edif' edify
eduk' educate, rear
edz' husband
efektiv' real, actual
efik' have effect
eg' d. increase (p. 6)
egal' equal
eĥ' echo
ej' d. place allotted to (6)
ek' d. sudden or beginning act (5)
eks' ex- (who has been)
ekscit' excite
ekskurs' trip
eksped' dispatch
ekster outside
eksterm' crush out
ekstrem' extreme
ekzamen' examine
ekzempl' example
ekzerc' exercise
ekzil' banish
ekziste' exist [mong
el out of, from a-
elefant' elephant
elekt' choose [(6)
em' d. propensity
embaras' puzzle
embuŝ' ambush
enigm' puzzle (take
entrepren' under-
enu' be wearied
envi' envy
er' d. unit (p. 6)
erar' error, mistake
erinac' hedgehog
ermit' hermit
erp' harrow
escept' except
eskadr' squadron
esper' hope
esplor' explore
esprim' express
est' be (verb aux.)
estim' esteem
esting' extinguish
estr' d. chief (p. 6)
ŝafod scaffold
et' d. diminution (6)
etaĝ' story (of house)
etend' extend (tr.)
etern' eternal
evit' avoid
ezok' pike (fish)

F

fab' bean
fabel' tale, story
fabl' fable
fabrik' factory
facil' easy
faden' thread
fag' beech-tree
fajf' whistle
fajl' file (tool)
fajr' fire
fak' compartment
fakt' fact
faktur' invoice
fal' fall [grass
falĉ' mow, cut
falt' fold
falk' falcon
falsi' falsify
fam' fame, rumour
familj' family
fand' cast, melt,
fantom' ghost
far' do, make
faring' pharynx
farm' take on lease
fart' be (well or un-
farun' flour [well)
fask' bundle
fast' fast (vb.)
faŭkl' jaws, gully
favor' favour
fazan' pheasant
febr' fever
Februar' February
feĉ' lees, sediment
fe'in' fairy
fel' hide, fleece
feliĉ' happy, lucky
felt' felt
femur' thigh
fend' split, rive (tr.)
fenestr' window
fer' iron
ferdek' deck (ship)
ferm' shut, close
fervor' zeal
fest' festival
festen' banquet
fianĉ' betrothed
fibr' fibre
fid' to rely upon
fidel' faithful
fier' proud
fig' fig [present
figur' image, re-
fil' son
filik' fern
fin' end, finish (tr.)
fingr' finger
firm' firm
fiŝ' fish
flam' flame
flank' side, flank
flar' smell (tr.)
flat' flatter
flav' yellow
flegm' nurse (the
flekt' bend [sick
flik' patch
flirt' flit, flirt
flok' flake
flor' flower
flos' raft
flu' flow
flug' fly (vb.)
fluid' fluid
flut' flute
foir' fair (subst.)
fojf' time (three times
fojn' hay [&c.)
fok' seal (animal)
foli' leaf, sheet
fond' found, start
font' spring, fount
fontan' fountain
for forth, out, away
forges' forget
forĝ' forge, smithy
fork' fork
form' shape
formik' ant
forn' stove, furnace
fort' strength

fortik' strong (to
fos' dig [resist)
fost' post, stake
frag' strawberry
fra' spawn
frak' dress coat
frakas' shatter
frakson' ash [son
framason' freema-
framb' raspberry
frand'-aĵo sweets, dainties
franĝ' fringe
frap' hit, strike
frat' brother
fraŭl' bachelor
fremd' foreign
frenez' crazy, mad
freŝ' fresh new
fripon' rogue
friz' dress (hair)
fromaĝ' cheese
frost' frost
frot' rub
fru' early
frugilo' rook
frukt' fruit
frunt' forehead
ftiz' phthisis
fulig' soot
fulm' lightning
fum' smoke
fund' bottom [ation
fundament' found-
funebr' funeral
funel' funnel
fung' mushroom
funt' pound
furaĝ' forage
furiez' rage
fuŝ' bungle
fut' foot (measure)

G

gaj' gay, merry
gajn' gain, earn
gal' gall
galoŝ' rubber-shoe
gamaŝ' gaiter
gant' glove [tee
garanti' guaran-
garb' sheaf, shock
gard' guard [gle
gargar' rinse, gar-
gas' gas
gast' guest
gazet' newspaper
ge' d. both sexes (5)
general' general (military)
gent' tribe
genu' knee
gest' gesture
glaĉ' ice
glad' to iron
glan' acorn
glas' glass, tumbler
glat' smooth
glav' sword
glit' glide, slide
glob' globe
glor' glory
glu' glue
glut' swallow (vb.)
gorĝ' throat
graci' graceful
grad' degree
graf' earl, count
grajn' a grain, pip
grand' great, tall
gras' fat
grat' scratch [late
gratul' congratu-
grav' important
graved' pregnant
gravur' engrave
gren' grain, corn
grI' gruel
grifel' slatepencil
gril' cricket (insect)
grinc' to grate
griz' grey [(intr.)
groz' gooseberry
gru' crane (bird)
grup' group
gudr' tar [age
gum' gum, mucil-
gurd' barrel organ
gust' taste
gut' drop, drip
guvern'-istino, governess [itary)
gvardi' guard (mil-
gvid' to guide

Ĝ

ĝarden' garden
ĝem' groan
ĝen' incommode
ĝeneral' general
ĝentil' polite [adj.
ĝerm' germ
ĝi it
ĝib' hump
ĝiraf' giraffe
ĝis until, as far as
ĝoj' joy, glad
ĝu' enjoy
ĝust' exact, right

H

ha ah
hajl' hail
hak' to chop [hall
hal' great room,
halaĉ' bad exhalation
halt' stop (intr.)
har' hair
hard' harden
haring' herring
harp' harp [less)
haŭt' skin, (hair-
hav' have [bour
haven' port, har-
heder' ivy
hejm' home
hejt' heat (vb.)
hel' clear, glaring
help' help
hepat' liver
herb' grass
hered' inherit
hero' hero
hieraŭ yesterday
hipokrit' feign
hirud' leech [(bird)
hirund' swallow
histrik' porcupine
ho! oh!
hodiaŭ to-day
hok' hook
hom' man
honest' honest
honor' honour
hont' shame
hor' hour
hord' barley
horloĝ' clock, w'tch
hostI' sacred host
huf' hoof
humil' humble
humor' humour, humd' dog [temper

Ĥ

ĥaos' chaos
ĥemI' chemical
ĥimer' chimera
ĥoler' cholera
ĥor' chorus, choir

I

I t. of infinitive (4)
ia some (any) kind
iaI for some (any) cause, reason
iam at some (any) time, ever, once
iaŭ d. descend of (6)
ide' idea
ie some- anywhere
iel some- anyhow
iem some- anyone's
ig' d. causing to be (p. 6)
iĝ' d. becoming (6)
il' d. instrument (6)
ili they, them
ilumin' illuminate
imag' imagine
imit' imitate
imper' empire
implik' entangle
impres' impression felt, influence
in' d. feminines (6)
incit' provoke, incite, tease
ind' d. worthy of (6)
indign' indignant
indulg' to be indul-
infan' child [gent
infekt' infect
infer' hell
influ' influence
ing' d. holder (p. 6)
iniciat' iniciate
ink' ink
inklin' inclined to
insekt' insect
insid' ensnare
instig' instigate
instru' teach
insul' island
insult' insult, abuse
int' past part. act.
intenc' intend [(4)
inter between, among
interes' interest
intern' inner, inside
-ntest' intestine
i -trig' to plot
invit' invita
io some-, anything
iom a little, some,
ir' go [rather
is d. past tense (4)
ist' d. profession (6)
it'd. past part. p. (4)
iu some-, anyone
izol' isolate

J

j t. of the plural (2)
ja in fact
jak' jacket
jam already
Januar' January
jar' year
je indefinite preposition (2)
jen behold! lo!
jes yes
ju—des the..the
jug' yoke
jugland' walnut
juĝ' judge
juk' itch
Juli' July
jun' young
jung' to couple, harness
Juni' June
jup' petticoat, skirt
just' just, righteous
juvel' jewel

Ĵ

ĵaluz' jealous
ĵaŭd' Thursday
ĵet' throw
ĵongl' juggle
ĵur' swear [mom'nt
ĵus just, at the very

K

kaĉ' rap
kadr' frame
kaduk' frail
kaf' coffee
kaĝ' cage
kahel' dutch tile
kaj and [ered book
kajer' paper cov-
kajut' cabin, hut
kal' corn (on foot)
kaldron' boiler
kalesI' carriage
kalik' chalice, cup
kalk' lime
kalkan' heel
kalkul' reckon
kalson' pants
kalumni' slander

kambi' bill of exchange
kamel' camel
kamen' fire-place
kamer' camera
kamp' field
kan' cane
kanab' hemp
kanaji' scoundrel
kanap' sofa, lounge
kanar' canary
kandel' candle
kankr' cray fish.
kant' sing [cancer
kap' head
kapabl' capable
kapel' chapel
kapr' goat
kapric' whim
kapt' catch
kar' dear
karaf' carafe, de-
karb' coal [canter
kard' thistle
kares' caress
karot' carrot
karp' carp (fish)
kart' card, map
karton' cardboard
kas' cash box
kaserol' stewpan
kask' helmet
kastel' castle
kastor' beaver
kaŝ' hide (vb.)
kaŝtan' chestnut
kat' cat
katar' catarrh
katen' fetter
kaŭz' cause
kav' cave, hollow
kavern' cavern
kaz' case (gram.)
ke that (conj.)
kel' collar
kelk' some, several
kelner' waiter
kern' kernel
kest' chest, box
kia what kind of
kial why, where-
kiam when [fore
kie where
kiel how, as
kies whose
kio what (thing)
kiom how much
kis' kiss
kiu who, which
klaft' fathom (ms.)
klar' clear, plain
klas' class, sort
klav' key (piano)
kler' educated
klin' bend, incline
klopod' take trou-
kluz' sluice [ble
knab' boy
kned' to knead
kobold' goblin, imp
kojn' wedge
kok' cock
koks' hip
kol' neck
kolbas' sausage
kolег' colleague
kolekt' collect
koler' angry
kolomb' dove
kolon' column
kolor' colour
kol'um' collar
kom' comma
komb' comb [tr.
komenc' commence
komerc' trade
komfort' comfort
komis' commission
komitat' commit-
komiz' clerk [tee
komod' chest of drawers
kompar' compare
kompat' to pity
kompliez' obliging-ness
kompost' set (type)
kompren' under-stand
komun' common
kon' know (be acquainted with)
kondamn' condemn
kondiĉ' stipulation
konduk' to conduct
kondut' to behave
konfid' to trust
konfuz' to confuse
konk' shell [infer
konkludi' conolude,
konkur' compete
konkurs' enter into competition [ous
konsci' be consci-
konserv' preserve
konsil' to advise
konsol' console
konstat' to state, establish (a fact)
konstern' amaze
konstru to build
kontant' cashdown
kontor' office (com.)
kontraŭ against
konven' to suit, befitting
konvink' convince
kor' heart
korb' basket
kord' cord (music)
korekt' to correct
kork' cork
korn' horn
korp' body
kort' court, yard
korv' raven
kost' cost, price
kot' dirt
koton' cotton
koturn' quail (bird
kov' to brood
kovert' envelope
kovr' cover
kraĉ' spit (saliva)
krad' grate
krajon pencil
kramp' clamp
kran' tap, spigot
krani' skull
kravat' cravat
kre' creata
kred' believe
krem' cream [wild
kren' horse-radish
kresk' grow, . in-
kret' chalk [crea.
krev' burst (intr
kri' cry, shout
kribr' to sift
krim' crime
kripl' crippled [tc
kroĉ' hook to, cling
krom besides, in addition to
kron' crowa
kroz' to cruise
kruĉ' jug, pitcher
kruc' cross
krud' raw
kruel' cruel
kuzr' leg
krut' steep
kubut' elbow
kudr' sew
kuf' woman's cap
kugi' bullet
kuir' cook
kuk' cookey, cake
kukol' cuckoo
kukum' cucumber
kukurb' pumpkin
kul' gnat
kuler' spoon
kulp' fault, blame
kun with, *kun'e* together
kuniki' rabbit
kupr' copper
kur' run
kurac' cure, treat
kurag' courage
kurb' curve
kurten' curtain
kusen' cushion
kuŝ' lie (down)
kutim' custom
kuv' tub, vat
kuz' cousin
kvankam altho'gh
kvant' quantity
kvar four [town)
kvarta' quarter (of
kvazaŭ as if
kverk' oak
kviet' calm
kvin five
kvitanc' receipt

L

L', la the
labor' labour
lac' weary, tired
lacert' lizard
laĉ' lace (boot)
lad' tin plate
laf' lava
lag' lake
lak' varnish
lake' lackey
laks' lax, diarrhœa
lakt' milk
lam' lame
lamp' lamp
lan' wool
land' land, country
lang' tongue
lantern' lantern
lanug' down, fluff
lard' bacon
larg' broad, wide
laring' larynx
larm' tear (of eye)
las' leave, let
last' last, latest
laŭ according to
laŭb' grees arbour
laŭd' praise
laŭt' loud, aloud
lav' wash
leciion' lesson
led' leather
leg' read
legom' vegetable
leg' law
lek' lick
lent' lentil,
lentug' freckle
leon' lion
lepor' hare
lern' learn
lert' skilful, clever
leter' letter, epistle
lev' lift, raise
li he, him
liber' free
libr' book
lien' spleen
lig' bind, tie
ligm' wood (the sub-
lim' limit [stance
limak' snail
lin' flax
lingv' language
lini' line
lip' lip
lit' bed [alphabet)
liter' letter (of the
liver' supply, deliver
log' entice
log' to lodge, live
lok' place, locality
long' long
lorn' telescope
lot' draw lots
lu' rent
lud' play
lul' lul asleep [ne
lum' light -i to shi-
lumb' loins
lun' moon
lund' Monday
lup' wolf
lupol' hope
lustr' chandelier
lut' solder
lutr' otter

M

mac' unlea'ened
maĉ' chew [bread
magazen' ware-
magi' magic [house,

Maj' May
majest' majesty
majstr' master (profession)
makler' broker
makul' stain, spot
makzel' jaw
mal' d. opposites (5)
malgraŭ' in spite of
mam' breast (fem.)
man' hand
manĝ' eat
manier' manner
manik' sleeve
mank' lack, want
mar' sea
marĉ' swamp [gain
marĉand' to bar-
mardo' Tuesday
mark' mark, stamp
marmor' marble
Mart' March
marŝ' march
martel' hammer
mason' do mason's
mast' mast [work
mastr' master (of
maŝ' mesh [house)
maŝin' machine
maten' morning
matrac' mattress
matur' ripe
meb' piece of fur-
meĉ' wick [niture
mejl' mile
mel' badger
meleagr' turkey
melk' milk (vb.)
mem self, selves
membr' member
memor' memory
mend' order (goods)
mensog' tell a lie
mentos' chin
merit' merit [day
merkred' Wednes-
met' put, place
metil' handicraft
mev' sea-gull
mez' middle
mezur' measure
mi I, me
miel' honey
mien' mien
migdal' almond
migr' migrate
miks' mix
mil thousand
milit' war
minac' to threaten
miop' short-sight
miozot' forget-me-not
mir' wonder
mister' mystery
mizer' misery
moder' moderate
modest' modest
mok' to mock
mol' soft
mon' money
monaĥ' monk
monarĥ' monarch
monat' month
mond' world
mont' mountain
montr' show
mor' habit, usage
morbil' measels
mord' bite
morgaŭ to-mor-
mort' die [row
morter' mortar
moŝt' general title
Vi'a reĝ'a moŝt'o, your majesty, *vi'a moŝt'o* your honour
mov' move (tr.)
muel' mill
mug' to roar, (wind
muk' mucus [&c.
mult' much, many
mur' wall
mus' mouse
musk' moss
muskol' muscle
mustard' mustard
muŝ' fly (a)
mut' dumb

N

n e. of direct obj. (2)
naci' nation
naĝ' swim
najbar' neighbour
najt' night [gale
najting'i nightin-
nap' turnip
nask' give birth, *nask'iĝ'* be born, *nask'ig'* beget
natur' nature
naŭ nine
nazl' to sicken
naz' nose
ne no, not
nebul' fog
neces' necessary
negoc' business
neĝ' snow [nor
nek—nek neither—
nenia no kind of
neniam never
nenie nowhere
neniel nohow
nenies no one's
nenio nothing
neniom not a bit
neniu nobody
nep' grandson
nepr' unfallingly
nest' nest
net' clean copy
nev' nephew
ni we, us
nigr' black
nivel' level [dim. (7)
nj' d. fem. affect.
nobel' nobleman
nobl' noble
nokt' night
nom' name
nombr' number
nord' north
nov' new [ber
Novembr' Novem-
nu! well!
nuanc' shade, hue
nub' cloud
nud' naked
nuk' nape of neck
nuks' nut
nul' zero [(No.)
numer' number
nun now
nur only (adv.)
nutr' nourish, feed

O

o e. of nouns (p. 1)
obe' obey [ject
objekt' thing, ob-
obl'..-fold, *du'obl'* twofold (s. p. 3)
obstin' obstinate
odor' odour, smell
ofend' offend
efer' to offer (as sacrifice, gift, &c.)
ofic' office (employ-
oft' often [ment)
ok eight [sion, case
okaz' occur -*o* occa-
okcident' west
Oktobr' Oktober
okul' eye
okup' occupy
ol than (p. 3)
ole' oil
omar' lobster
ombr' shadow
ombrel' umbrella
on' d. fractions: (3)
ond' wave
oni one, people, they: (s. p. 3)
onkl' uncle [(4)
ont' e. fut. part. act.
op' d. collective numerals (p. 3)
opini' to opine
oportun' handy
or' gold [larity
ord' order, regu-
orden' order, (de-coration)
ordon' order, com-
orel' ear [mand
orf' orphan
organ' organ (mus.)
orient' east
ornam' ornament
os e. of fut. tense
osced' yawn [(p. 4)
ost' bone
ostr' oyster
ot' e. fut. part. pass.
ov' egg [(4)

P

pac' peace
pacienc' patience
paf' shoot, fire
pag' pay
paĝ' page (book)
paj' straw
pak' pack, put up
pal' pale
palac' palace
palis' stake
palp' touch, feel
palpebr' eyelid
pan' bread
pantalon' trousers
pantofl' slipper
pap' pope
papag' parrot
papav' poppy
paper' paper
papili' butterfly
par' pair, brace
pardon' forgive
pareno' relation
parker' by heart
parol' speak
part' part
parti' party, par-
pas' pass [tial
paser' sparrow
pasi' passion
pask' Easter
past' paste
pasteĉ' pie [or
pastr' priest, past-
paŝ' to step [cattle
paŝt' pasture, feed
pat' frying-pan
patr' father
paŭz' to pause
pav' peacock
pavim' pavement
pec' piece
peĉ' pitch
peg' wood-pecker
pejzaĝ' landscape
pek' sin
pekl' to pickle
pel' drive, chase
pelt' fur [away
pelv' basin
penI endeavour
pend' hang. (intr.)
penik' paintbrush
penI think
pent' to repent
pentr' paint
pep' to chirp
per by means of
perĉ' perch (fish)
perd' lose
perdrik' partridge
pere' perish
perfekt' to perfect
perfid' betray
pergamen' parch-
perl' pearl [ment
permes' permit
peron' platform
persik' peach
pes' weigh (tr.)
pest' plague
pet' request, beg
petol' be roguish, play the wanton
petrol' paraffin oil
petroselI parsley
pez' weigh (intr.)
pI' pious
pied' foot, leg
pig' magpie
pik' prick, sting
pilk' ball (f. playing)

pin' pine-tree
pinč' pinch
pingl' pin
pint' pointed
pip' pipe (tobacco)
pipr' pepper
pir' pear
pirit' gravel
pist' to pound, **piz'** pea [crush
plac' public square
plad' please
plad' plate
plafon' ceiling
plank' sole (of the **plank'** floor [foot)
plant' plant (vb.)
plat' flat, plain
plaŭd' splash, clap
plej most (p 3)
plekt' weave, plait
plen' full
plend' complain
plet' tray
plezur' pleasure
pli more
plor' mourn, weep
plu further, longer
plug' plough
plum' pen
plumb' lead(metal)
pluv' rain
po a piece, at rate of
pokal' cup, goblet
polic' police
poligon' buckwheat
polur' polish
polus' pole
poiv' dust
pom' apple
ponard' dagger
pont' bridge
popl' poplar-tree
popol' people
por for, for benefit
pord' door [of
pork' hog, pig
port' wear, carry
posed' possess
post after, behind
posten' station(mil)
postul' require, de-
poŝt' pocket [mand
poŝt' post, mail
potenc' mighty
pov' be able, can
pra'avo great grandfather
prav' right (adj.)
precip' chiefly
preciz' precise
predik' preach
prefer' prefer
preĝ' pray
prem' press
premi' prize
pren' take
pres' print (vb.)
preskaŭ almost
pret' ready [(prep.)
preter beyond
prez' price
prezent' to present
pri concerning, ab-
princ' prince [out
principo' principle
printemp' spring
privat' private[time
pro owing to, for the sake of
procent' interest
proces' lawsuit
produkt' produce
profund' deep
prokrast' to delay
proksim' near
promen' to walk
promes' promise,
propon' propose
propr' (one's) own
prosper' succeed,
prov' try [thrive
proviz' provide
prujn' hoar (frost)
prun' plum
prunt' to lend
pruv' to prove.
pugn' fist
pul' flea
pulm' lung
pulv' gunpowder
pulver' powder
pump' to pump
pun' punish
punkt' point
punt' lace
pup' doll
pur' pure
pus' pus, matter
puŝ' push
put' well (subst.)
putr' to rot

R

raĝ' rob ? [count
rabat' rebate, dis-
raben' rabbi
rabot' to plane
rad' wheel
radi' beam, ray
radik' root
rafan' horseradish
rafin' refine
rajd' to ride (on horseback) [rity
rajt' right, autho
rakont' relate
rang' *cr* *rl*
ran' frog
ranc' rancid
rand' edge, margin
rang' rank, grade
rap' long radish
rapid' quick, rapid
raport' report
rast' to rake
rat' rat
raŭk' hoarse
raŭp' caterpillar
rav' ravish, delight
raz' shave
re' d.a.again, back(s)
redakt' editorial office
reg' rule, govern
regal' regale
regn' State, realm
regul' rule
reĝ' king, reign
rekompenc' reward
rekt' straight
rel' rail
rem' to row [chair
rembur' to stuff,
rempar' bulwark
ren' kidney
renkont' meet
renvers' upset
respond' reply
rest' remain [rant
restoracl' restau-
ret' net
rev' dream (awake)
rezultat' result
rib' currant
ribel' to rebel
ricev' obtain, get,
riĉ' rich [receive
rid' laugh
rifuĝ' take refuge
rifuz' to refuse
rigard' look at
rigl' bolt
rikolt' reap
rilat' relate to, con-
rim' rhyme [cern
rimark' to notice
rimed' means
rimen' strap
ring' ring (subst.)
rip' rib
ripet' repeat
ripoz' repose, rest
riproĉ' reproach
river' river
riz' rice
rod' roadstead
romp' break
rond' round, circle
ronk' to snore
ros' dew
rost' roast [anim.)
rostr' trunk (of
rot' company (mil.)
roz' rose
rub', rubbish
rubend' ribbon
ruben' ruby
ruĝ' red
rukt' eructate
rul' roll (tr.)
rust' rust (tr.)
ruz' trick, ruse

S

sabat' Saturday
sabl' sand
sag' arrow
saĝ' wise
sak' sack
sal' salt
salat' salad
salajr' salary
salik' willow
salm' salmon
salt' leap, jump
salut' salute, greet
sam' same
san' health
sang' blood
sankt' holy
sap' soap
sark' to weed
sat' satiated
sauc' sauce
sav' save [tally)
sci' know (men-
scienc' science
sciur' squirrel
se if
seb' grease, fat
sed but
seg' saw
seĝ' seat, chair
sek' dry
sekal' rye
seks' dissect
seks' sex
sekv' follow
sel' saddle
sem' sow
semajn' week
sen without
sens' sense
send' send
sent' feel, percieve
sep seven [ber
Septembr' September
serĉ' search
seri' series
seriez' serious
serur' lock.(subst.)
serv' serve
ses six
sezon' season
si him-, her-, it-, one-self, themselves (reflex.)
sibl' to hiss
sid' sit
sieĝ' besiege
sigel' seal (vb.)
sign' sign, token
signif' signify
silab' syllable, *sil-ab'i* to spell
silent' to be silent
silik' flint
silk' silk
simi' monkey
simil' like, similar
simpl' simple
singult' hiccup
sinjor' Sir, Mr.
sitel' bucket
situacl' situation
skal' scale [blade
skapel' shoulder-
skarab' beetle
skatol' small box
ŝelter' to fence
skiz' to sketch
sklav' slave
skrib' write
sku' shake
skulpt' sculpture
skvam' scale (fish)
smerald' emerald
sobr' sober
societ' society
soif' thirst
sojl' threshold

sol only, alone
soldat' soldier
solen' solemn
solv' loosen, solve
somer' summer
son' sound (subst).
song' dream
sonor' give out a sound (as a bell)
sopir' long for
sorb' absorb
sorĉ' witchcraft
sovaĝ' wild, savage
sort' fate, lot
spac' space
spec' kind, species
spegul' mirror
spert' experience
spez' *el'spez'* disburse, *en'spez'* receive (money)
spic' spice
spik' ear (of corn)
spin' spine
spinac' spinach
spir' breathe
spirit' spirit, mind
spit' in defiance(of)
spong' sponge
sprit' wit
spron' spur
sput' expectorate
stabl' staff (mil.)
staci' station
stal' stable, stall
stamp' stamp,
stan' tin [mark
standard' flag
stang' pole
star' stand
stat' state, condi-
stek' stitch [tion
stel' star
sterk' manure
stern' stretch out; *-iĝa* prostrate [tle
stertor' (death)rat-
stomak' stomach
strab' squint
strang' strange
strat' street
streĉ' stretch
streĥ' streak, line
strĭ' stripe, wide
strig' owl [streak
strut' ostrich
stup' tow
sturn' starling
sub under, beneath
subit' sudden
suĉ' suck
sud' south
sufer' suffer
sufiĉ' sufficient
sufok' suffocate
suk' sap, juice [(tr.)
sukcen' amber
sukcez' have suc-
sukcr' sugar (cess
sulfur' sulphur
sulk' wrinkle
sun' sun
sup' soup
super over, above
supoz' suppose
supr' upper (adj.)
sur upon, on
surd' deaf
surtut' overcoat
svat' arrange matrimony
sven' to swoon
sving' swing (tr.)

Ŝ

ŝaf' sheep
ŝajn' seem
ŝak' chess
ŝancel' shake (tr.)
ŝanĝ' change (tr.)
ŝarg' load (a gun)
ŝarĝ' load, burden
ŝat' to prize, like
ŝaŭm' foam, spray
ŝel' shell, peel, rind
ŝelk' brace (trous.)
ŝerc' joke
ŝi she, her
ŝild' shield
ŝim' get mouldy
ŝind' shingle
ŝink' ham
ŝip' ship
ŝir' tear, rend
ŝirm' shelter
ŝlim' mud
ŝlos' lock, fasten
ŝmac' hearty kiss
ŝmir' smear, anoint
ŝnur' string
ŝov' push forward
ŝovel' shovel
ŝpar' be sparing
ŝpin' spin
ŝpruc' sprinkle
ŝrank' cupboard
ŝraŭb' screw
ŝtal' steel
ŝtat' State
ŝtip' log of wood
ŝtel' steal
ŝtof' stuff, tissue
ŝton' stone
ŝtop' stop up
ŝtrumf' stocking
ŝtup' step
ŝu' shoe
ŝuld' owe
ŝultr' shoulder
ŝut' shoot out (corn
ŝvel' swell [&c.
ŝvit' perspire

T

tabak' tobacco
tabel' list
tabl' table
tabul' plank, board
tag' day
tajlor' tailor
taks' estimate
tal' waist
talp' mole (animal)
tambur' drum
tamen however
tapet' tapestry
tapiŝ' carpet
tas' cup (tea)
taŭg' be fit for
tavol' layer
te' tea
ted' tedious
teg' cover (furniture, &c.)
tegment' roof
teks' weave
teler' plate
temp' time [(anat
templ' temple
ten' hold, grasp
tend' tent
tent' tempt, try
ter' earth
torn' sneeze
terur' terror
testud' tortoise
tetr' grouse
tia such a
tial therefore
tiam then
tie there
tiel thus, so
tikl' tickle
til' lime-tree
tim' fear
tine' moth [es
tint' clink of glass-
tio that (thing)
tiom so much
tir' draw, pull
titol' title
tiu that
tol' linen
toler' tolerate
tomb' tomb, grave
tond' clip, shear
tondr' thunder
tord' wind, twist
torf' peat
torn' turn (lathe)
tornistr' knapsack
tort' tart
tra through
trab' beam (of wood
traduk' translate
traf' hit, reach
trajt' feature
trakt' transact
tranĉ' cut
trankvil' quiet
trans across
tre very
trem' tremble
tremp' to dip
tren' drag, trail
trezor' treasure
tri three
trink' drink
tritik' wheat
tro too (much)
tromp' deceive
trotuar' side-walk
trov' find
tru' hole
trud' force upon
trunk' trunk, stem
tub' tube
tuber' bulb
tuf' tuft
tuj immediately
tuk' cloth, kerchief
tur' tower
turd' thrush
turment' torment
torn' turn (v.a.)
tus' cough
tuŝ' touch
tut' whole, quite

U

u e. imperative (4)
uj' d. containing (7)
uĵ' d. remarkable for (p. 7)
um' indef. suffix. (7)
umbilik' navel
ung' nail (finger)
unu one
urb' town
urs' bear (animal)
urtik' nettle [(p. 4)
us' e. of conditional
uter' womb
util' useful
uz' use

V

vag' roam
vaks' wax
val' valley
valor' be worth
van' vain, needless
vang' cheek
vant' vain, futile
vapor' steam
varb' to recruit
variol' smallpox
varm' warm
vart' nurse (child)
vast' wide, vast
vaz' vase
vejn' vein
vek' wake, arouse
vel' sail (subst.)
velk' fade
velur' velvet
ven' come
vend' sell
vendred' Friday
venen' poison
veng' vengeance
venk' conquer
vent' wind
ventol' to air
ventr' belly
ver' true
verd' green [birch
verg' rod *-i* whip,
verk' work (liter-
verm' worm [ary)
vers' verse
versi' pour
veruk' wart
vesp' wasp
vesper' evening
vespert' bat
vest' to clothe
veŝt' waistcoat
vet' bet, wager

veter' weather [cle
vetur' go (by vehi-
vezik' blister, blad-
vi you [der
viand' meat, flesh
vic' row, rank, turn
vid' see
vidv' widower
vigl' alert
vilaĝ' villag e
vin' wine
vinagr' vinegar
vintr' winter
viol' violet
violon' violin
vip' whip
vir' man, male
virg' virginal
virt' virtue
viŝ' wipe
vitr' glass (sub-
viv' live [stance)
vizaĝ' face
vizit' visit, call on
voĉ' voice
voj' way, road
vojaĝ' voyage
vok' call
vol' wish, will
volent' willingly
volv' wrap round,
vom' vomit [roll up
vort' word
vost' tail
vual' veil
vulp' fox
vultur' vulture
vund' wound

Z

zon' girdle
zorg' care for
zum' to buzz

This series of articles does not aim to be a treatise leading to the complete mastery of the language in ten lessons, but a simple statement of rules, with enough examples, and exercises to establish them firmly in the mind; their chief aim is clearness.

ALPHABET.

The letters of the alphabet are:

a, b, c, ĉ, d, e, f, g, ĝ, h ĥ, i, j, ĵ, k, l, m, n, o, p, r, s, ŝ, t, u, ŭ, v, z.

PRONUNCIATION.

Vowels.—Let the beginner make a clear differentation between the vowel sounds:—a, e, i, o, u, as uttered in the English words:—par, pear, pier, pore, poor,—pronounced briskly, so that one vowel cannot, in any combination, be mistaken for another, and he will have a sufficiently correct Esperanto pronunciation of the vowel sounds. In fact, corresponding in sound to the English words, par, pear, pier, pore, poor, we have the Esperanto words: *paro,* a pair, a brace—*per,* by means of,—*piro,* a pear,—*por,* for, for the benefit, of, *pura,* pure.

Ŭ is used only in the combination aŭ, and eŭ. AŬ is pronounced like the ow of *cow.* *EŬ* like *ayw* in *wayward.*

Consonants.—The consonants are pronounced as in English with the following exceptions:

C pronounced like ts in pits, Tsar.
Ĉ pronounced like ch in choke, church.
G pronounced like g in get or go, always hard.
Ĝ pronounced like j in Joe or g in George.
Ĥ pronounced like ch in loch, strong aspirate.
J pronounced like y in yoke.
Ĵ pronounced like s in pleasure.
S pronounced like s in so, never with the sound of z.
Ŝ pronounced like sh in show.
Z pronounced like z in zone.

Therefore the Esperanto alphabet is pronounced: a, bo, tso, tsho, do, e, fo, go, jo, ho, kho, i, yo, *so* (with the *s* sounded as in pleasure), ko, lo, mo, no, o, ro, so, sho, to, u, ŭo, vo, zo. Taking care to give always the same sound to o.

The four following combinations offer some difficulty:—aj, ej, oj, uj. Let us begin with the last one. Pronounce the word "hallelujah" and separate the sound which pertains to *uj,* you have the correct pronunciation of the Esperanto uj. Give to a, e, o, the same finish you gave to u in *uj* and you have it.

Pronunciation of Words.—There are no mute letters in Esperanto, every vowel or consonant is pronounced distinctly. When two vowels or two consonants come together they must be pronounced clearly and distinctly. Every word of more than one syllable is accented on the last syllable but one. In order to separate words into syllables: 1. Separate them into their grammatical elements. 2. In any element, a consonant between two vowels forms a syllable with the second vowel; if there are more than one consonant between two vowels, the first consonant belongs to the first vowel and closes the syllable, and the other or others go with the second vowel. Ex.—kra*j*ono (krah-*yo*-no), *pencil;* ele*men*to (eh-leh-*mehn*-to), element; malkviete*c*o (mahl-kvee-eh-*teh*-tso), restlessness; ĉiu*j*ara, (chee-oo-*yah*-ra), yearly; noktomezo (nok-to-*meh*-zo), midnight; tro*u*zi (tro-*oo*-zi), to abuse; ti*o*m (*tee*-om), as much; pere*i* (peh-*reh*-ee), to perish; mallu*mi*ĝo (mahl-loo-mee-*dj*o), eclipse.

Try to utter each vowel the same way every time. Of course you cannot do this. Nobody does who speaks with any fluency. Involuntarily you will pronounce a vowel ending a syllable with a shade of difference from the vowel in a syllable ending with a consonant. Do not let that worry you. And you will find a tendency to lengthen the accented vowel sometimes. That also is harmless.

Grammar

There is one definite article, *la,* invariable. There is no indefinite article.

Nouns always end in *o.* Ex: *patro*—father.

Adjectives always end in *a.* Ex: *patra*—paternal.

The plural of nouns, adjectives, participles, and pronouns (except only the personal pronouns) end in *j.* Ex: *patroj*—fathers; *bonaj patroj*—good fathers.

The accusative (objective case) always ends in *n.* Ex: *Mi amas mian bonan patron*—I love my good father. *Ni amas niajn bonajn patrojn*—We love our good fathers.

Adverbs always end in *e.* Ex: *bone*—well; *patre*—paternally. (There are a few non-derived adverbs without the *e* ending, as *jam ankaŭ tiel, kiel.*)

The personal pronouns are: *mi*—I; *vi*—you; *li*—he; *si*—she; *ĝi*—it; *oni*—one; *ni*—we; *vi*—you; *ili*—they. Also a reflexive pronoun *si,* which always refers to the subject of its own clause. All these pronouns form the accusative case by adding *n.*

The verb has no separate ending for persons or number.

The present ends in *as.* Ex: *mi amas*—I love.

The past ends in *is.* Ex: *Vi amiŝ*—You loved.

The future ends in *os.* Ex: *Li amos*—He will live.

The conditional ends in *us.* Ex: *Ni amus*—We should love.

The imperative ends in *u.* Ex: *amu*—love! *ni amu!* let us love! This form also serves for the subjunctive. Ex: *Dio ordonas ke ni amu unu la alian*—God commands us to love one another.

The infinite ends in *i.* Ex: *ami*—to love.

There are three active participles.

The present participle active is formed by *ant.* Ex: *amanta*—loving; *amanto*—lover.

The past participle active is formed by *int.* Ex: *aminta*—having loved; *la skribinto*—the man who has written.

The future participle active is formed by *ont.* Ex: *amonta*—being about to love.

There are three passive participles.

The present participle passive is formed by *at.* Ex: *amata*—being loved.

The past participle passive is formed by *it.* Ex: *amita*—having been loved.

The future participle passive is formed by *ot.* Ex: *amota*—being about to be loved.

All compound tenses, as well as the passive voice, are formed by the verb *esti* (to be) with a participle. Compound tenses are employed only when the simple forms are inadequate. Ex: *mi estas aminta*—I have loved (lit. I am having loved); *vi estis aminta*—you have loved (lit. you were having loved); *mi estus amita*—I should have been loved.

Having read carefully the above grammatical rules a few times, let the beginner translate the following paragraph from Esperanto into English. Each word has been separated into its component parts so that all that remains to be done is to look up each part in the vocabulary and the sense will readily be found.

PAROL-AD-J.

Ge-sinjir-o-j, mi nun dir-os al vi kelk-a-j-n vort-o-j-n esperant-e. Mi kred-as ke vi aŭd-os ke esperant-o est-as tre facil-a kaj bel-son-a lingv-o. Ver-e, ĝi est-as tiel facil-a kaj simpl-a, ke oni tut-e ne hav-as mal-facil-ec-o-n por lern-i ĝi-n. La lernant-o-j pov-as ordinar-e kompren-i, leg-i, skrib-i kaj parol-i ĝi-n en tre mal-long-a temp-o. La fakt-o ke esperant-o en-hav-as tre mal-mult-a-j-n, vokal-a-j-n son-o-j-n, kaj ke la vokal-o-j est-as ĉiu-j plen-son-a-j, est-ig-as ĝi-n mult-e pli facil-a ol la ali-a-j lingv-o-j ĉu por aŭd-i, ĉu por el-parol-i.

Mi kred-as ke mal-long-a lern-ad-o est-os sufiĉ-a por vi-n kompren-ig-i, ke la hom-o-j de ĉiu-j land-o-j pov-as inter-parol-i esperant-e sen mal-facil-ec-o.

Mi ne de-ten-os vi-n pli long-e. Fin-ant-e, mi- las-os kun vi du fraz-et-oj-n: unu-e, por la ideal-ist-o-j, kiu-j cel-as unu frat-ec-on inter la popol-o-j de ĉiu lando, la esperant-a-n deviz-o-n "Dum ni spir-as ni esper-as."; due, por la hom-o-j praktik-a-j, la praktik-a-n konsil-o-n: "Lern-u esperant-o-n."

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THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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IT is the general opinion that the political campaign that is now drawing to a close has been quite exceptional, and in the right direction. As had been anticipated, offensive personalities have been avoided and the discussion has been carried on a high plane. The important speeches and writings of the candidates and their respective supporters have dealt with these two questions:

Would the Republican or Democratic ticket most effectually insure the continuation and logical extension of the reforms of the Roosevelt regime?

Aside from the question of policy, is Taft or Bryan the fitter administrator?

One able editor has pointed out that all the presidential tickets this year and all the platforms are "radical." The conservatives are not represented at all, and for them the only question is which of the tickets "threatens" them least. That there can be no halt, no backward step in any direction, must be accepted by them as absolutely certain. The people want economic and political reform, and no party that does not command their confidence or impress them with the sincerity of its pledges has any chance of victory.

In the ranks of the independents there have been interesting developments. The drift is not all one way. Thus the New York *Evening Post,* the New York *Times,* the Baltimore *Sun,* the Springfield (Mass.) *Republican,* and some other independent or independent-Democratic organs have declared for Taft as the more judicious, experienced, "constructive" candidate. The New York *World* is support-

ing Bryan, and the independent organs of the West, like the Indianapolis *News,* the Chicago *Record-Herald,* the Chicago *News,* and others are very friendly in their comments on Mr. Bryan's utterances. On the other hand, papers that are vigorously anti-Bryan admit that he has "grown," that his speeches are more moderate and balanced, his tone dignified, his style clear, effective and persuasive. In the Democratic party there are more signs of harmony than there were in any one of the last three national campaigns, but the Republicans claim that thousands of Democrats will nevertheless vote for Taft.

Of the issues of the campaign, the tariff, the abuses of the injunction, the further regulation of trusts, the guaranteeing of deposits of the banks, and the prevention of undue and improper influences in elections have received the lion's share of attention. Mr. Bryan has definitely revived the issue of a revenue tariff, with merely incidental protection vs. a frankly protected tariff. The Republicans favor revision, but insist on adhering to the protective policy, and they advocate duties high enough to insure high wages to labor and a reasonable profit to the employers. Does the government guarantee profits to any other class of men? asks Mr. Bryan, and other critics of the plank with him; is it right to guarantee profits by law in any case? This question raises an issue as to the object and proper limits of the tariff, but alongside of it is the question which of the parties would revise the schedules as they should be revised in the interest of the consumers and the independent manufacturers.

While the campaign discussion is not lacking in spirit, the managers complain of apathy on the part of the voters, especially as regards contributions. Publicity has made many previous contributors distinctly modest, while corporations, as stated before, are prohibited from contributing by federal law. The expenditures of this campaign will be exceptionally small, but all disinterested citizens agree that this is "a consummation devoutly to be wished."

Primary Laws and Popular Rule

Several States—among them Illinois, Missouri, Kansas, and Iowa—have held direct primary elections lately to nominate governors, federal senators (the latter, of course, in a purely advisory capacity, for the legislatures alone have the legal power to elect them), legislators, and other officers. The laws were new in some instances and the voters had their first "chance" to pass directly on party candidates. The great question in the preliminary campaigns was whether these newly enfranchised voters would use their extended power and influence, or permit the machines, the bosses and the professional office holders to control the nominations as under the old system.

It cannot be said that the results were decisive from this point of view. The interest in the primaries was perceptibly and considerably greater than it had been when merely delegates to nominating conventions were chosen, but it was manifest that everywhere thousands of good citizens qualified to vote failed to appear at the polls. The former indifference, the old habit of letting the politicians and their friends settle the nominations, still proved operative. The friends of direct primaries fear that when the novelty of the system is rubbed off the indifference will tend to become even more marked, and that the machines, with their discipline and organization, will again exercise complete control.

But as to one thing the primaries left no doubt, and that is the desire of the majority for more progressive and more independent statesmanship. In Kansas, Senator Long was defeated by Mr. Bristow, former Assistant Postmaster General and fighter of graft and corruption. In Illinois, Representative Foss nearly defeated Senator Hopkins after a short and limited contest. In Iowa, the people endorsed (the late) Senator Allison for another term in the body in which he had served so long with distinction and ability, but on questions of the day they admittedly preferred the attitude of Gov. Cummins, who ran against the venerable senator. Now that death has removed the latter and closed

a notable career, Iowa Republicans are turning to Mr. Cummins as the logical exponent of their views and sentiments.

On the whole, the summer was a bad one for bosses, spoils cliques and mere partisans. The period has been one of "popular rule," of effective assertion of independence within party lines, and of repudiation of mere labels and machine products.

The Cuban Situation and Prospects

Pursuant to a program formulated last year, provincial and municipal elections have been held throughout Cuba as the first great step to the restoration of native government in the island. These elections passed off quietly, and the American authorities believe that many of the Cubans have really learned to abide by the results of honest contests and legal voting.

There were three parties in the field, the Conservative, the Gomez liberal, and the Zayas liberal. The division of the liberals into two wings or factions enabled the conservatives to capture many offices in cities where they are in a minority. Only about fifty-eight per cent. of the qualified voters went to the polls, however, and it is not clear whether the abstentions were chiefly in the liberal or in the conservative ranks. It is hoped, for the sake of the future of Cuban independence and stability, that at the presidential election, announced for next December but likely to be advanced, a full vote will be cast. A full vote will not only mean that the business and wealthy elements are taking a proper interest in government and exercising their share of influence, but also that the decision at the polls will be the decision of a majority of the voters instead of a minority.

One result of the recent election and the conservative victories is the retirement of Zayas as a candidate for the presidency and the practical consolidation of the two liberal factions. In the event of liberal unity and harmony that party, supposed to control a majority of the votes, will prob-

ably elect its candidate. If the conservatives then accept the verdict and acquiesce in majority rule, the obstacle to the surrender of the whole government to the Cuban officials will be removed.

There are still, it must be admitted, serious doubts in many minds as to the success of the next experiment on Cuban self-government. But nothing, it is apparent, would be gained by further delay at this time. Cuba has been given honest registration laws, proper election machinery and other essentials of honorable and just government. The foundation has been laid for a stable and orderly administration. If Cuba has too many disorderly men who are ready "to take to the woods" on any provocation, real or imaginary, and start insurrections and revolutions, the process of ridding her of these elements through education, severe discipline and stern suppression of lawlessness will be a much longer one than our government would now feel justified in undertaking. Hence independence is to have another trial immediately, and further developments will depend on the conduct of the natives—the workmen, the plantation laborers, the colored citizens, the ex-revolutionists.

Arbitration and Compulsion

The Dominion of Canada has an industrial conciliation and arbitration act which has received the highest praise and commendation from leading men in America and England. It applies only to the field of public utilities—railroads, lighting companies, etc.—but the intention has been to extend it if its operation should be considered as justifying extension to other fields. The act is a consolidation of some previous statutes with novel features, the most important of the latter being the provision for a public and authoritative investigation of any industrial controversy, and the prohibition of a strike or lockout pending the inquiry and the publication of the findings. The system thus differs materially from the compulsory arbitration laws of

Australasia. The right to strike or discharge is not absolutely denied; it is only restricted and suspended for a time. Instead of one court to hear all disputes a special body of conciliators or arbitrators is selected for each dispute. The idea of the act is that discussion, publicity, impartial findings and opportunity for delay and sober action cannot fail to prove a preventive of ruptures and consequent interruptions of industry.

In the recent strike of railroad machinists and other employes—the greatest that Canada has undergone—the act "failed," apparently. That is, the inquiry and the decision of the board were not acceptable to labor, and some 8,000 men struck as soon as the law permitted them to do so. It does not follow, however, that an act is a failure if it does not completely prevent the evil it is aimed at. The Canadian system of conciliation and arbitration, with its temporary prohibition of strikes and lockouts, will doubtless be judged by the experience of a number of years, and of many disputes.

Meantime reports from New Zealand indicate that compulsory arbitration is far from giving satisfaction or "preventing strikes." The government, the parliamentary opposition, the labor leaders, the newspapers seem to agree that the arbitration law has failed. Several strikes have taken place, in spite of fines and threats of prosecution, and neither employers or employes are of the opinion that these strikes were exceptional. More friction is feared, and something must be done if New Zealand is to be in reality what many have admiringly called it "a country without strikes."

Exactly what changes the system needs is a matter upon which opinions differ. The labor leaders say that more conciliation and less compulsion is the remedy. They complain of the unfairness of the arbitral court and its ignorance of industrial questions and conditions. But the government thinks that more compulsion is needed, rather than less, and proposes heavier fines for striking or locking out men and more effective means of collecting the fines. It is

willing to provide for boards of conciliation with members from the industries affected by the disputes, but it has no faith in moral means alone. Its new bill is denounced by labor as the most tyrannical ever proposed in an Anglo-Saxon parliament. Some amendments will probably be adopted, but not in the teeth of opposition from organized labor.

The British Old-Age Pension Act

The parliament of the United Kingdom passed the Asquith old-age pensions bill, and it is now law. All agree that it is one of the most momentous pieces of legislation that the spirit of the age and the great movement for social reform have brought forth. It is true that Australia, New Zealand, and Denmark have had old-age pension systems for some years, and the act is therefore not "unprecedented." But England is a conservative country, with a hereditary upper house, a landed aristocracy and an industrial class that still believes very strongly in the "let alone" or individualistic philosophy of government. For England the measure is distinctly radical, and so it is regarded by many conservatives and independents.

Yet it passed the Commons without serious opposition, the Tories arguing but not voting against it, and the Lords by a considerable majority. In the upper house it was subjected to very severe criticism, and an attempt was made to amend it materially and limit its duration to seven years. But the Commons rejected all amendments originating in the Lords as a breach of privilege, taking the ground that measures involving the expenditure of money by the national treasury cannot be either proposed or changed in the upper house. The Lords, though denying this view of their powers, abandoned their position on the pensions bill as a matter of policy and accepted it in the form in which the liberal ministry and commons wished it carried into effect.

The pensionable age is fixed at 70, and the amount the

pensioner will receive is $1.25 a week. Paupers and criminals are disqualified, and it is estimated that the cost of the system even as now limited will be about $30,000,000 a year, at least. No one doubts that in the course of time the amount of the pension bill will be raised and the pensionable age lowered to 65. The Tories have for years been committed to a general pension scheme, but they contend that in order to provide means for it the fiscal system must be changed, duties must be imposed on many classes of products and the basis of taxation broadened considerably. The Liberals insist that free trade finance is not incompatible with old-age pensions and other social reforms, and they are to endeavor to demonstrate this during the remainder of their term of office. It is generally felt that this question of "finding money" for social reform will be the chief issue in the next general election in Great Britain. The Tories will take as advanced a position as the Liberals on all matters that are of vital importance to labor and to the masses of the "plain people."

Turkey as a Constitutional State

The world has been amazed and puzzled by the developments in Turkey during the past several weeks. They are as extraordinary, as dramatic and as inspiring withal as any recorded by history. Who would have predicted, and who would have believed, a few months ago the things that have come to pass in so short a period? Turkey—a constitutional state; Turkey with a representative assembly, a charter of liberties, equality of citizens before the law, a free press, a reform ministry of statesmen, of men of character and progressive spirit!

When the news that the sultan had granted his subjects a constitution—or, rather, had revived the "suspended" constitution of 1876—was first given to the world it was received with deep skepticism. "Another strategem by the crafty sultan," was the general comment. On the other hand,

many declared that even if the sultan was sincere in his step, nothing would come of it, since the people were neither ready for nor interested in constitutional government. Others feared civil war, massacre, revolt, such as followed the granting of a constitution to Russia.

But the event so far has justified the hopeful and agreeably disappointed the pessimistic and doubtful. It has been made clear, to begin with, that the sultan yielded because he found himself at his wit's end and saw no alternative. The Young Turk movement had taken hold of all the liberal-minded people; the unpaid and oppressed troops had made common cause with the reformers and constitutionalists; even the trusted Albanians, the loyal subjects of the sultan, had shown signs of unrest and discontent. Moreover, the Macedonian problem was about to be reopened; the powers were pressing for reforms and the acceptance by the porte of a new program; the Christian population was in danger, and another conflict meant intervention. All of these combined to discredit the old regime, and the sultan had to choose between loss of his European provinces, disorder and mutiny on the one hand, and constitutional reforms on the other. He did not, it would seem, hesitate long. He granted even more than the Young Turks and other progressives had dared to hope for in the immediate future. And his choice was certainly a wise one.

It brought peace to Turkey. Only slight disturbances and a small mutiny of ultra-loyalist troops followed the surrender. On the whole the various elements of the population have behaved with wonderful self-restraint and tact. The Mohammedans have fraternized with the Christians; Greek, Bulgar, Armenian, Jew, Turk, Albanian—all have welcomed the promised new era and have preserved extraordinary calmness and trust in the beneficence of the change.

The whole western world is eagerly watching Turkey. On the East the effect has also been salutary, for the reaction in Persia seems to have been checked by the astonishing news

from Constantinople. The powers that have been considering further reforms for Macedonia and intending to exert pressure on the porte have decided to give the new regime a chance. It is hoped that the parliament and reform ministry of Turkey will deal with the complex Macedonian problem in a new spirit, and that the population of the province will meet the government half-way in the effort to eliminate violence, oppression, disorder and racial animosity.

It would be idle, of course, to speculate on the future of the Turkish experiment, especially in view of the keen disappointment of liberalism in more advanced Russia. It is to be noted, however, that some sober-minded writers who know Turkey assure the west that she is more "ripe" for constitutionalism than most of us suppose. Her educated classes, her high-born women, her army and diplomatic service are said to be intelligently in favor of freedom and integrity in public affairs, and many of the races in her population are independent, proud, strong, and fit to govern themselves.

It is interesting to glance at the history of the "revived" constitution. The London *Times* recently set it forth briefly as follows:

On his accession in August, 1876, Abdul Hamid found himself confronted with a situation of the utmost gravity, owing to the state of his European provinces and the interest taken in them by Europe, not to speak of the war with Servia and Montenegro. In the beginning of December, 1876, a European conference was held in his capital to put matters straight. It was an utter failure, and is chiefly remarkable for the attempt which the Sultan made to impress the delegates by appointing the reformer Midhat Pasha Grand Vizier and proclaiming a Constitution. By this proclamation Parliamentary institutions were set up and every sort of liberty conferred on his people. Two months, however, had not elapsed before Abdul Hamid showed the insincerity of his promises by arresting and banishing Midhat Pasha, the author of the Constitution. In the meantime the concentration of Russian troops on the Pruth assumed formidable proportions; the Protocol of London urging Turkey to disarm was received by the Porte; the European Conference in Constantinople, having proved a signal failure, broke up, and with it the Concert of Europe. The elections for the Turkish Parliament, nevertheless, took place throughout the Empire. The old edifice liament House, where, on the conclusion of a short-lived peace with Servia, the elected Deputies assembled. On March 19, 1877, the Sultan convoked them to the Palace of Dolma Baghtché and adin Stambul called Dar-el-Funun was renovated to serve as a Pardressed them in a Speech from the Throne, in which, after de-

claring the Parliament open, he reviewed the situation and made profuse promises of liberal reforms and of military and naval reorganization. On the following day the Senators and Deputies took the oath and their seats in the Dar-el-Funun and began to prepare an Address in reply to the Speech from the Throne.

On April 23 Russia declared war, whereupon the Sultan telegraphed to his generals in command on the Danube and in Anatolia a high-sounding proclamation, and on May 24 martial law was proclaimed. A month later the Parliament was abruptly closed, and although it reassembled once more at the end of the year, its independent attitude again alarmed the Sultan, and he took advantage of the arrival of the British fleet for the protection of his capital against Russian advance in order to rid himself once for all of a popular institution for which he no longer had any use. The Parliament was dissolved on February 14, 1878. Even then Abdul Hamid did not venture formally to abrogate the Constitution. It was declared to be "suspended," and suspended it has remained for thirty years.

May the fate of the present experiment be happier. It probably will be, for much has happened in the world in the last thirty years, and all of a character to weaken absolutism and tyranny.

II. Danger Points Around the Globe*

By Victor S. Yarros

THE international political kaleidoscope whirls and changes so unexpectedly that not even the astute specialist in diplomacy is able to foretell today what question will be "acute" and threatening tomorrow. While the unexpected does not always happen in the sphere of international relations, it happens so frequently that he who would discuss possible apples of discord or pending questions pressing for settlement must be cautious and liberal with his "ifs" and other reservations. The recent trouble between Italy and Turkey, which all but led to a naval demonstration by the former in the waters of the latter power was a surprise to the world at large; the Moroccan difficulty which necessitated the calling of the Algeciras Conference (discussed in a previous article) was the result of an impulsive and wholly unforeseen act of the German Emperor. The murder of a missionary or of a diplomatic agent here or there may beget serious complications.

Still, it is a fact that at any given historic stage certain problems may be recognized as vital and "dangerous"—as containing possibilities of conflict and storm. Having shown whereon the European balance rests at this juncture, by means of what alliances and agreements peace and relative security are guaranteed for the time being—it is necessary to inquire next what further understandings and arrange-

*The first article of this series, "The European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World," by Victor S. Yarros, appeared in the September CHAUTAUQUAN.

ments are necessary to remove the fear of war and render possible the much desired reduction of armaments.

Six years ago, any such inquiry would have elicited the assertion that Korea, Manchuria, India, and European Turkey were the chief danger points, and that would have been true. Today the answer is very different. Korea is practically a Japanese province, and Russia, professing a policy of "sound egotism" (to use the phrase of her minister of foreign affairs) acquiesces in the accomplished fact and hopes for friendly relations with Japan on the basis of the *status quo*. Persia and (indirectly) India are among the "spheres" covered by the Anglo-Russian understanding. Manchuria and European Turkey remain, however, and they are not by any means the only danger points on the political map.

Before dealing with any of these points a few words must be said regarding far more general questions that fall within the same category. Until about a year or two ago it was the fashion in British, French, Russian, and even certain American newspapers to represent Germany as a restless, disturbing, and intriguing enemy of the world's peace. She was supposed to be jealous of England and hostile to the United States. She was accused of secret sympathy with her "Pan-German" imperialists, whose literature advocates the absorption of Holland, the annexation of the German provinces of Austria, and the planting and active cultivation of German colonies in South America. She was supposed to entertain special designs in Brazil, whither tens of thousands of loyal Teutons had emigrated and where they were establishing purely German settlements. Incidentally, Germany was supposed to abhor the Monroe Doctrine and to be looking forward to a decisive clash with the American republic over the latter's claim of "moral suzerainty" in the whole western hemisphere.

Owing to various causes, these suspicions have practically vanished from the minds of thoughtful observers. "Pan-Germanism" has been disavowed by leading diplo-

matic representatives of Emperor Wilhelm and very significant articles undoubtedly of a semi-official character have been contributed by German diplomats to influential reviews to convey assurances of a non-aggressive policy on the part of the imperial government at Berlin. Particularly important was a paper which the late Baron von Speck-Sternburg, German Ambassador to the United States, published in the *North American Review* for March of this year. Its title was "The Truth about German Expansion" and it dealt vigorously with what it called the "fairy tales" that were circulated in some quarters regarding the alleged colonial schemes of the Fatherland. The Ambassador started out by saying:

> "In the first place, it is not true that colonial expansion is a necessity for Germany, resulting from its industrial growth. The impetus given to German commerce and German manufactures is to be ascribed far more to the increase in the buying capacity of other nations—England, France, Russia, or America—than to all the German colonies combined. Germany needs no colonies; what she wants is merely free competition on all seas, the open door, and the right to coöperate freely on an equal footing with all other commercial and industrial nations, in opening up new and as yet unopened districts and markets. Hence the principle of the open door is the leading motive of the foreign policy pursued by Germany. It is the red thread that winds itself through the Eastern-Asiatic, the Oriental, and the Moroccan policy of the German Empire."

We cannot, from lack of space, quote at length from the article, but suffice it to say that it undertook to refute the assertion that Germany had any lust for territory that jeopardized either the independence of Holland and Belgium or the Monroe Doctrine.

Another supposed menace to European peace has until lately been discerned in the friction between the two halves of the Dual Kingdom, Austro-Hungary. At one time there was a disposition in Hungary to threaten secession after the manner of Norway in her former union with Sweden. Publicists gravely talked about the certain disintegration of the kingdom upon the death of Francis Joseph and the apprehension was openly expressed that in the event of such disintegration Germany would eagerly embrace the opportunity

and "gobble up" the provinces that have dominant Teutonic majorities. Well-informed writers have called Austro- Hungary the "balance-wheel of Europe" while recognizing that the personality of the aged emperor-king has kept that wheel in place and in proper motion. The consequences of an upheaval in that kingdom these writers have declared to be too appalling to contemplate.

But latterly more cheerful and at the same time more reasonable views have been expressed concerning the situation and prospects of Austro-Hungary. The death of Francis Joseph is no longer dreaded; the stability of the dual kingdom no longer seriously doubted. The concession of adult suffrage to the masses of Austria has made for national unity and national solidarity and Pan-Germanism has suffered a set-back. Hungary, too, has realized apparently that secession would be bad and dangerous from the view-point of her cherished "home rule" and her historic mission in Europe. Separated from Austria she would be a small, weak, insecure power, open to attack unless "neutralized" by the great powers. Her pride, her independence, her vital interest, it is now recognized, demand the maintenance of the union of which she claims to be the more homogenous and the more important half.

The European or American student of "world-politics," if requested to name the points of actual or possible disturbance, would undoubtedly mention "Macedonia" first. Morocco might come next, or the Far East. At any rate, Morocco is entitled to the third place as matters now stand, if not to the second, and the fourth place may be assigned to the Baltic Sea and the Aland Islands, though the last named danger point has been measurably relieved by the recent North Sea and Baltic treaties.

Concerning Macedonia, very grave language has been used by the most sober-minded of statesmen. In pressing certain reforms (presently to be discussed) on the continental powers, Sir Edward Grey, British minister for foreign affairs, has said lately that "Macedonia if it continues to be

neglected by the concert must sooner or later provoke a catastrophe." Chancellor von Buelow of Germany compared the Macedonian situation to "the elements of a conflagration which six great powers were in vain endeavoring to extinguish, since fresh fuel was always being imported from without." What, exactly, is the Macedonian problem?

It would require a volume to state and explain it, but here a few paragraphs must suffice.

As a matter of fact, there is now no such geographical or administrative entity as "Macedonia." The name is given for historical reasons to three provinces in European Turkey—Salonika, Manastir. and Kossova. This territory, bounded by Bulgaria, Albania, and the Aegean Sea, has for several decades been a veritable whirlpool, or rather a storm center, a theater of strife, bloodshed, racial conflicts, massacre, and insurrection. There is no trustworthy official estimate of the population of Macedonia, and private statisticians are widely at variance. However, impartial German investigators give approximately the following estimate:

Turks and Albans	628,000
Bulgarians, Serbs and other Slavs	2,000,000
Greeks	200,000
Rumans	100,000

These races are at war with one another, religious, political, economic and other motives inspiring their mutual hatreds and fierce contentions. In the words of von Buelow, "the sole or even the chief cause of the evil did not lie in the opposition between the Christians and the Mahommedans, but in the embittered conflicts between the different Christian nationalities, each of which was trying to secure supremacy in Macedonia, and in the event of the abolition of Turkish supremacy as large a share of that territory as possible." The Turks, including the troops stationed in the province to maintain order, oppress and maltreat the Christians, force them to pay tribute, and kill inoffensive men and women. When the brutalities cause popular revolts, the troops commit the most fiendish atrocities in the name of law

The Balkan Peninsula.

and authority. Greek, Bulgarian, and Servian bands constantly invade Macedonia and plunder and kill without mercy in the name of freedom and emancipation. A Servian statesman, in a paper which appeared in a British magazine, wrote as follows about these raids, ravages, and massacres:

"It is evident to everybody that the situation in Macedonia cannot remain much longer such as it is now. It is a disgrace not only to the Balkan nations, who are fighting each other in Macedonia by fire and sword in the sight of Mohammedans, but it is a disgrace to the whole of Christian and civilized Europe, which has for several years already allowed such a scandal to go on without any serious attempt to check it. It is a disgrace that the great powers of Europe coolly and slowly, yes, very slowly indeed, discuss how to improve the finances of Macedonia, looking quietly on the burning of villages and the slaughtering of poor peasants alternately by Bulgarian, Serbian, and Greek."

The only permanent solution of the problem would be found in autonomy for Macedonia under a governor nominated by, or with the consent of, the powers of Europe. But for this the concert of the powers is not ready. Some of them, notably Germany and Austria, do not wish to "imperil the sovereignty of the Sultan" though his sovereignty has been restricted again and again in the last several decades. They fear that the Macedonian population would be provoked to extreme resistance and the flames of war would be kindled not only in the Balkans but in Asia Minor and in India and Egypt. Half measures are therefore advocated at present, and the best observers believe that half measures will not only fail, but beget the very dangers apprehended by the powers.

Macedonian reform has been talked of since the Russo-Turkish War. In 1902 an uprising followed by atrocities on the part of the Turks led to the drawing up of a scheme which the Sultan approved "in principle" and absolutely ignored in practice. In 1903 Russia and Austria, as the agents of Europe as a whole, agreed on what is called the Mürzsteg program, which provided for European command of the Macedonian gendarmerie and for foreign supervision of the collection of the taxes. That program has been applied, but the obstruction of the Turkish officials, coupled

with the inadequacy of the power vested in the foreign agents, robbed it of all its efficacy. The outrages continued, and according to many accounts, about 10,000 murders have been committed in the provinces since 1903.

Further reforms, increased European control, and steps toward partial autonomy are now proposed. Their success is distinctly doubtful and another failure will raise the question of real and complete autonomy. That, in turn, will revive that larger question of the Turk in Europe, of the fate of the provinces of Adrianople and Constantinople. Russia will never abandon the dream of acquiring Constantinople, but will Austria acquiesce in that consummation? And what will be the position of Germany, of England?*

Moreover the interests of Italy and Austria in the Balkans are incompatible and perhaps irreconcilable. In the words of a well-informed writer, "there lies between them an abyss as broad as the Adriatic, for which they are both silently struggling." Italy would like to convert the Adriatic into an "Italian lake" and she regards Albania and the western side of the Balkan peninsula as her future sphere, her estate in reversion. She is building schools and seminaries in Albania to gain adherents among the population. Austria's Adriatic interests and claims in the Balkans arising from her position, her work in Macedonia, her control and administration of Bosnia-Herzegovina, are opposed to Italy's aspirations. Some day there will be a conflict over the Adriatic.

With the Moroccan problem as it now presents itself one must deal in the light of the Algeciras conference and the events that led up to that gathering. In a previous article, those antecedents were briefly set forth. Bearing them in mind, what is to be expected in Morocco? France has been conducting a military campaign in that kingdom

*The sudden revival of the Turkish constitution has resulted in a truce in Macedonia and in a suspension of the reform efforts of the Powers. The Turkish parliament is to have "a chance" to deal honestly with the Macedonian problem. But the difficulties will be great and the result doubtful.

Morocco and Its Relation to the rest of Northern Africa.

incurring losses and sacrifices which cannot be compensated for with money, and her people have been restive and dissatisfied. Germany has been watching French operations in Morocco with undisguised suspicion and jealously fearing "a hostile move"—that is, an attempt on the part of France to establish a protectorate over the country, to occupy the capital or other important cities, and depart from the spirit of the Algeciras treaty. The French government has had to give the most unequivocal assurances of its adherence to that treaty. Yet is it no secret that the French want Morocco as a dependency and regard themselves as entitled to it by virtue of their possession of Tunis and Algiers, and it is probable that all the powers except Germany would permit her to proclaim herself the protector and suzerain of Morocco. Germany alone, then, blocks the way and forces on French statesmen a policy of equivocation and cant. When reports are circulated that France intends to denounce the Algeciras treaty and take such "independent action" as the new circumstances justify, the government repudiates them—without satisfying either French or German public opinion.

How soon affairs in Morocco may reach a crisis, and whether France is prepared to defy Germany and appeal to the support of England and Russia, it would be rash to say. But the general feeling among impartial observers is that Morocco will remain a "sore spot" (to use a von Bülow phrase) and a source of discord until either the sword or an agreement of some far-reaching kind that shall readjust the relations between Germany and France at all points shall

finally determine the future destiny of Morocco. For even now it is sheer pretence to speak of the ancient Moorish kingdom as an independent and "sovereign state." The only question is whether it shall pass under French control or under international control.*

From Morocco to Manchuria and the Far East is a "far cry" but in studying danger points one is compelled to take even less than forty minutes in putting "a girdle round about the earth." The Far Eastern problem is supposed to have been solved by the Russo-Japanese War and the Portsmouth Treaty. But the better opinion is that only the first battle has been fought in Manchuria. Thomas F. Millard, one of the most impartial and vigorous writers on the Far East, says in his recent book entitled "The New Far East" that far from settling the question, the peace between Russia and China "leaves it in almost as unsettled a state as before hostilities began." He continues:

> "All the old elements, with all the old cross purposes and hostilities, still remain, and are now confronted with the problem of assimilating or being assimilated by, this new force (a waking and capable Orient). The settlement is still a matter for the future. . . .
>
> "Instead of Russia being in Manchuria, both Russia and Japan are there. Both have agreed to evacuate it is true, but then, Russia has always agreed to evacuate. . . . There is not the slightest alteration of the political status of Manchuria as a result of the war, and the general interests there remain the same as they were before."

Another competent writer, Mr. B. L. Putnam-Weale, has written a book which bears the significant title "The Truce in the Far East." He cannot see that anything has been "settled there." The "truce" he thinks will probably continue until 1915, on account of the alliance between Japan and England, but it will hardly last much longer. For not only was Russia forced to accept a humiliating peace, but, in her view, Japan has not even observed the terms of the peace treaty. To quote Mr. Weale:

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*The latest complications in Morocco—the change of Sultans, the duplicity of the victorious usurper, the question of his "recognition," and Germany's surprising haste in advising such recognition—emphasize the extreme delicacy of the Moroccan situation.

Persia and the Russo-Indian Frontier.

"For the time being Russia has accepted certain undeniable facts; but that the general situation can continue indefinitely as it stands at present, she does not for a moment believe. She has abated none of her ambitions; no one need doubt this for a great empire must either advance or perish. She is of opinion that Japan has gone far beyond the stipulations of the Portsmouth treaty in attempting to make Korea virtually a Japanese province. She sees that Japan, by systematizing her railway program at home and on the edge of the Asiatic continent, is taking a leaf out of her own book and is looking far ahead. Russia admits that the diplomatic conquest of Peking will have to be begun all over again and that this has become more difficult than it ever was before. But she does not despair."

Certainly many things have happened since these words were written to corroborate the view taken by Messrs. Weale and Millard. There has been serious friction between Japan and China over questions of railway building in Manchuria, of trade, of the suppression of smuggling. There has also been friction between Japan and the business interests of England and America. It has been alleged that Japan is not observing in good faith the open-door principle in Manchuria; that she is granting rebates on her Manchurian line to her own merchants and rendering it hard for others to compete with them; that she is "treading on everybody's

toes" in the whole "sphere" that the war placed at her disposal. On the other hand Russia, while affirming a thoroughly pacific policy, has decided to double-track her Siberian railroad and also to construct a new "all Russian" line to Vladivostock, avoiding Manchuria entirely and following the Amur River as was originally planned. She realizes that in the event of war with either of her pacific neighbors the Manchurian railroad will be of no use to her, and, besides, China is entitled, by the terms of her railroad agreement with Russia, to take over that line at the end of a period of years (now a little over thirty) on paying the cost of its construction plus the deficits, if any, arising from its operation. The "new China" is expected to take full advantage of this purchase clause, and Russia therefore, is seriously troubled over the future of her Pacific provinces—their defence and development.

Whether we are optimistic or skeptical with reference to China's efforts at regeneration and reconstruction, whether she continues to grow as a modern power or relapses into apathy and stagnation, the future of the Far East, or at any rate of such parts of it as have been coveted by Western nations and regarded as "spheres" of their proper influence, is extremely uncertain. Momentous changes are impending there in any event, and they may not all take place under clear skies and a condition of peace and amity.

The Western powers that are most deeply concerned in the future of the yellow Far East happen also to be the powers interested in what is called the Northern Question—the future control of the Baltic and North Seas. I have adverted in the beginning of this article to the imputation to Germany of a secret desire to annex Holland and Belgium as well as to the sleeping but not dead controversy over the old convention regarding the Aland Islands. In April last, after some delicate negotiations, related agreements were signed for the maintenance of the *status quo* in the regions in question. The Baltic agreement was signed by Russia, Germany, Sweden, and Denmark—the littoral powers—and

The Aland Islands and the Adjacent Countries.

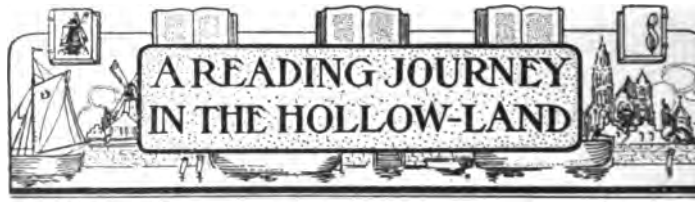
the North Sea agreement by Great Britain, Germany, Denmark, France, Holland, and Sweden. The superficial view of these conventions is that they constitute another guaranty of peace in Europe, and undoubtedly they are reassuring as far as they go. Still, critical writers feel that they have not even temporarily settled the Northern Question. In the first place, Russia's pledge of 1855 not to fortify the Aland Islands, which lie off the southern coast of Finland and "threaten" the Swedish capital, was not incorporated into the Baltic agreement, which means that it is not part of the permanent *status quo* and may be reopened at any time. Russia has denied that she wishes to fortify the islands, but she does not deny that she finds the pledge a galling restriction of her "sovereign" right to do as she pleases on her own territory. A reopening of the question would alarm Sweden and force her to increase her naval and military forces, and England, whose interest in the Baltic is great, would advance objections.

Again, the agreements are vaguely and queerly worded. They provide that if the *status quo* should be threatened, the

signatories should deem it their duty to enter into communication with one another in order to concert measures for its preservation. Such a phrase commits the powers concerned to nothing; in a crisis it would have little value or effect.

Finally, the treaties postpone but do not dispose of the question of the future relations between the two great empires, Russia and Germany, to the small weak states that cut them off, as has been said, from the freedom and opportunities of the sea. Holland and Belgium bar the way of Germany to effective control of the North Sea; Denmark guards the entrance of the Baltic; Norway stands between Russia and the Northeastern Atlantic. How long will the "imprisoned empires" respect the rights of the weak states? What will be the effect of the recent alliances and understandings on the *"status quo"* in the Baltic, the North Sea, the Balkans, the Persian Gulf?

There is, perhaps, no such thing as a "final" solution of any great territorial and international problem. States grow, decline, see other states in the places once occupied by them. Every change of moment unsettles something and brings fresh complications. But as things stand today, we can see what securities the last five years have added to the world's peace, and also what "sore spots" the developments of the period have exposed. The hope, however, is strong that in view of the steady march of arbitration, the aversion to war, the demands of the masses for internal and social reform (which if enforced would leave little treasure for warlike adventures), even the really grave and difficult questions that are still outstanding may be solved with peace and honor rather than by appeal to the sword and the torch.



II. Its Characteristics

By George Wharton Edwards

THE impression that the traveler in Holland gets is in one respect similar to that given by our own western prairie regions; and the broad, windy stretch of flat country, with comparatively few trees, and lying open to the gales of the North Sea, has a little of the same bleak air. But with this is mingled a most unaccustomed aspect of novelty. These fields are cultivated with the care of suburban market gardens, and are separated by long, V-shaped ditches, through which the water runs sluggishly some feet below the surface of the ground. Looking across them, one sees broad, brown velvety-hued sails moving in various directions among the growing crops; the roadway is on an embankment, running high above the land, frequently crossing canals, lying far enough below for the well-laden barges with lowered masts to pass freely, generally without the need of draw-bridges. It will be readily understood that the dykes are a very important feature of the country and some of these are well worth examination if the visitor have plenty of time on his hands. For the most part they are composed of earth and sand and clay, kept together by willows which are carefully planted and tended. Some of the dykes, however, for example the gigantic one at the Helder, are built of masonry. Many of them are broad at the top and being paved with klinkers (brick) form very good carriage roads. The dunes or sand hills which line

*Copyright, 1908, by George Wharton Edwards. The first article of this series, a brief outline of the history of Holland, appeared in the September CHAUTAUQUAN.

the coast serve as the barrier against the ocean. They are systematically sown at regular intervals with a coarse, grayish green grass, which holds the sand together, preventing the wind from blowing it away altogether. Some six million guilders are spent annually by the Dutch government in keeping these dykes in order, and a special body of engineers called "De Waterstaat" is appointed to look after them. An elaborate system of drainage has also to be maintained by means of powerful engines, windmills, etc. It must be remembered that the Dutch people have not only to fight against the inroads of the ocean but they have also to deal with many rivers which, taking their rise in other countries, flow through Holland for their final exit into the sea. Consequently, when there are heavy rains, say in Germany, the Rhine brings down an immense volume of water to add to the troublesome superfluity. The two principal canals are the North Holland Canal which was constructed in 1819-25 from Amsterdam to the Helder and which is forty-six miles in length, one hundred and thirty feet broad, and twenty feet deep, and the North Sea Canal, stretching from Amsterdam to the east coast, and of a width varying from sixty-five to one hundred and ten yards. Here are locks consisting of large basins, which are tremendous pieces of engineering. Their construction cost the State an enormous sum. The Merwede Canal is about one hundred feet wide and something like forty-four miles long.

The climate of Holland is similar to that of England for Spring, Summer, and Autumn, save that it is warmer in the Summer and the cold is much more severe in Winter. August is the hot month and the least preferable. During the Spring the country around about Haarlem presents an aspect of indescribable patch-works of great sheets of color. These are the tulip beds, vivid and beautiful, but the bulbs are grown for profit, not pleasure, and economy of space is carefully studied. Holland has a relatively low rainfall, accounted for by the absence of heights to attract rain-clouds. But as a matter of fact, the experienced trav-

eler does well to provide himself with mackintosh and umbrella, for the showers, though brief, are frequent.

The guilder, or florin is the common basis of the Dutch currency. Commonly called a guilder, plural gulden, it is always written "f" for florin, thus 65.00, f. 1.25, etc. The decimal system is used. There are one hundred cents in a guilder. The half guilder and quarter guilder are as common as our own fifty-cent pieces and quarters. The following table will be explanatory. Copper coinage, one half cent equals one-tenth of our cent; one cent equals one-fifth of our cent. Silver coinage: five cents equals two cents; ten cents equals four cents; twenty-five cents equals ten cents; fifty cents equals twenty; one guilder about forty cents, two and one-half gulden about one dollar. Gold coinage, ten gulden equals about four dollars. Paper notes for five, ten, and twenty-five gulden are in use everywhere. At hotels, the English pound is valued at twelve gulden, but money changers in the large cities, generally give a few cents more.

Self-government is a part of the life instinct of the methodical Dutchman, and was at the root of the country's antagonism to Spain. With an inborn love of administering their own affairs, they combine a respect for constitutional authority and a deep reverence for their sovereign.

The country is divided into 1,100 communes—urban or rural districts. The enfranchised inhabitants elect the communal council, or "Gemeente Raad," which holds office for six years, and is presided over by a burgomaster. The latter, however, is nominated by the sovereign. In authority over the "Gemeente Raad" is the Provincial States, also a popularly elected body, presided over by a commissioner appointed by the crown. The duties of the Provincial States are administrative in their own state only. The elect hold office for six years.

Above the Provincial States are the "States General," consisting of two chambers. The First or Upper House

(fifty members holding office for nine years), receives its election from the members of the Provincial States. The other, commonly called The Chamber, is elected by the people. Over the second chamber sits a President, appointed by the Sovereign. Here all national legislative business is transacted, and bills intended to become law are prepared and sent up to the First Chamber. The latter cannot propose measures on its own initiative. The Executive or Cabinet consists of ten ministers, each chosen by the Sovereign, usually from the Lower House, for the Premier must always be a member of "The Chamber." The portfolios are as follows: Finance, Justice, Foreign Affairs, Marine, Interior or Home, War, Public Works, Waterways, Trade and Industry, Agriculture and Labor, Colonies.

In addition to governing by ministers, the sovereign elects the "Raad van Staat," a body somewhat higher than the Privy Council of England, for it has powers by which it deals with (1) government bills brought before "De Kamer" (the Lower House) and (2) private bills awaiting royal sanction. Although elected for the respective terms named above, one-third of the members of the "Gemeente Raad," the Provincial States and "De Kamer" retire automatically every two or three years, but are eligible for re-election.

The army service is maintained partly voluntarily and partly by conscription, determined by a ballot. Exemptions are allowed to sons of indigent parents and other special cases. According to the nearest authority at hand, the strength of the peace-footing is 1,950 officers and 25,000 men. For war the numbers would be immediately raised to 126,000 with 50,000 auxiliaries.

For the national budget, the following are some recent figures, omitting the cost of the army and navy which, combined, absorb only three and three-quarter millions, paid for by separate taxation. In 1904-05 expenditure exceeded income, a most unusual occurrence in Holland, but the national debt was reduced by two and one-half millions. The

imports are a little under two hundred millions sterling, including twenty millions from the united kingdom. The exports are 170 millions, including thirty-eight millions to the united kingdom.

Of the religion of the population of Holland, about three-fifths are Protestants and two-fifths Roman Catholics. There are about one hundred thousand Jews of whom nearly one-half are in Amsterdam. The Protestants are subdivided into innumerable sects, the chief being the Dutch Reform Church. This is the State Church but is disestablished.

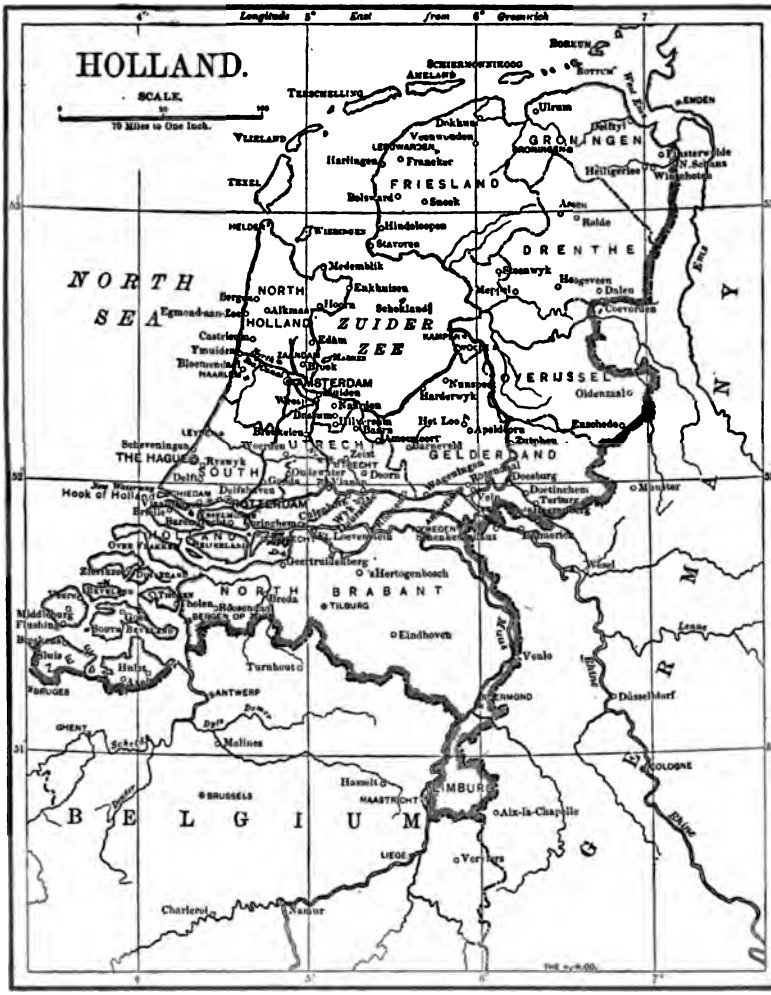
The national census of the population is taken every ten years. The following are the figures for the last three decadal periods:

December 31, 1879	4,013,000
December 31, 1889	4,549,000
December 31, 1899	5,104,000

There are only four towns with populations exceeding one hundred thousand, namely:

Amsterdam	524,000
The Hague and Scheveningen	250,000
Rotterdam	320,000
Utrecht	102,000

To return to the subject of money. Before going to Holland, the traveler would better make himself acquainted thoroughly with the mysteries of the Dutch coinage, and learn the coins by heart. The stranger is rather apt to treat the guilder, which is the principal coin, too much as if it were equivalent to a shilling but he will find that the balance will come out on the wrong side, as the guilder equals 1s. 8ds. Then the "dubbeltje," a silver coin, representing two-pence and looking not unlike our old-fashioned three-cent piece, long since recalled from circulation, is so ridiculously tiny that one loses sight of its real value. The following are the names of the Dutch coins now in circulation: Halve Stuyver, Stuyver, Dubbeltje, Kwartje or



Outline Map of Holland.

Vijfje, —Halve Gulden, Gulden, Rijksdaalder, Gouden Willem or Tientje. This last coin is of gold.

The traveler will say that the less said about the Dutch language, the better for him. He will probably find it as hard to make "de accents coom" as Hans Breitmann found was the case with English. But one great advantage in choosing Holland as a holiday resort is that the majority of the Dutch people know some English and as a rule they are proud of their knowledge and prefer to use it whenever possible. They appear to be able to learn foreign languages with great facility, for even among the lowest orders, many may be found who speak several languages besides their own. This may be partly accounted for by the fact that their own language is so difficult and so little understood out of Holland, that the Dutch in self-defence are obliged to acquire the tongues of other nations in order to compete in business. Perhaps it will not be out of place to incorporate here a short Dutch vocabulary:

Will you tell me.	Wil U mij zeggen.
If you please.	Als 't U belieft.
Where is.....	Waar is —.....
Which is the way to.....	Ho is de weg naar.....
Is this the way to.....	Is dit de weg naar.....
Is this.....	Is det —.....
The station?	Het station?
The train for —?	De trein naar?
The booking office?	Het kaartjes-bureau?
The waiting room?	De wachtkamer?
The refreshment room?	De restauratie?
The cloak room?	Het bagagabureau?
The baggage office?	De bewaarplaats bagage?
The telegraph office?	Het telegraafkantoor?
The postoffice?	Het postkantoor?
The custom house?	Het douanekantoor?
The boat for—?	De boot naar —?

Dutch is one of the most difficult of languages to acquire, being more guttural than German, which it somewhat resembles, and it may be classed by the student as a lower Frankish dialect. According to the best authorities it existed as early as the thirteenth century. It has developed

Dutch Dairy Proprietor and His Wife, at Broeck in Vaterland. See Photographs of their House-Factory on pages 200 and 201.

House, Edam Cheese Factory, and Stable all under one Roof.

a strong individuality, is expressive and devoid of the character of patois such as hampers the Flemish tongue. It has incorporated words of foreign origin less perhaps than any other of the low countries, and is of a remarkable richness and flexibility. Some words of Romanic origin will be recognized by the student, such as: Gids (guide), Rekwest (request), Kantoor (comptoir), Katoen (cotton), Kwarties (quarter). Its literature is rich and vigorous as may be recognized by the following verse from a favorite song:

Wien Neerlandsch bloed in de aderen vloeit,
  Van vreemde smetten vrij,
Wiens hartvoorland en Koning gloeit,
  Verhef den zang als wij:
Hij stel met ons, vereend vanzin,
  Met onbeklemde borst,
Het godgevallig feestlied in
  Voor Vaderland en Vorst.—*Tollens.*

Stalls for the Cattle—Under Same Roof as the Living Rooms of Owner.

(Literal translation: "Let him, in whose veins flows Netherlandish blood, free from foreign stain, and whose heart glows for country and king, raise the song with us, united in sentiment, with unburdened breast, in the festal song, pleasing to God, for Fatherland, and Sovereign.")

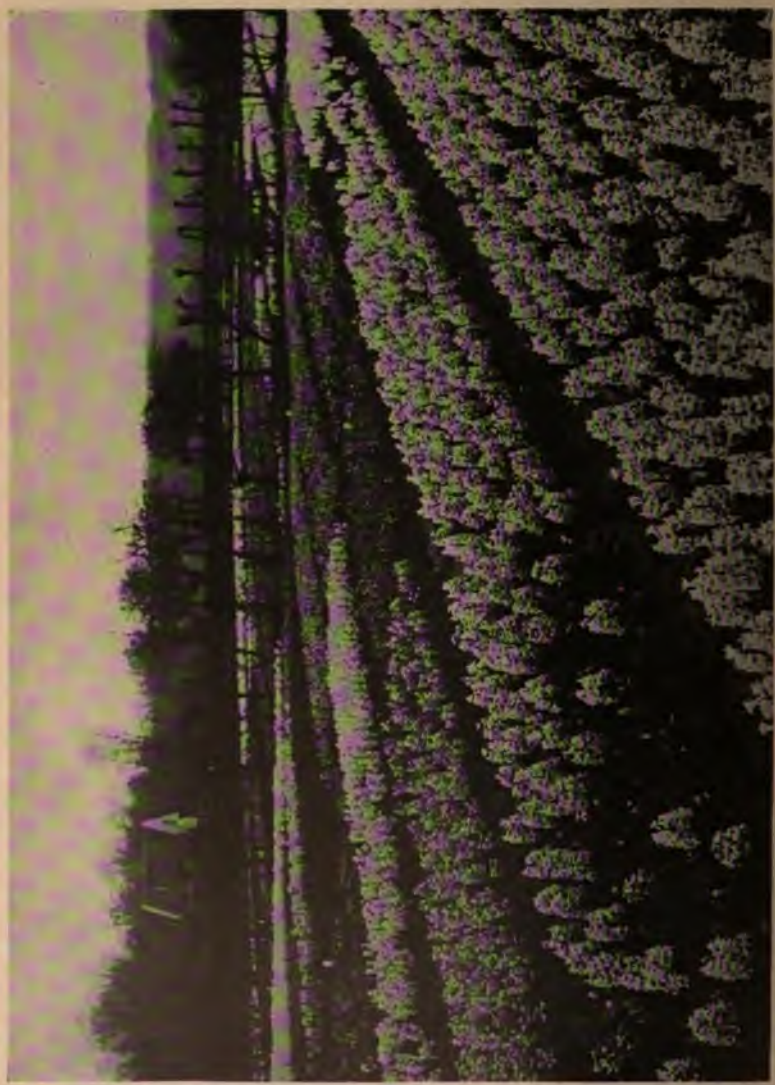
The vowels, a, e, i, o, u are pronounced as in French, and are lengthened, but not altered in sound, by being doubled (thus oo-o); ei and ij, or y, are like the vowel sound in the French pays; au and ou like ow in now, but broader (aw-oo); eu like the French eu or the German o; oe like the English oo or the German u; ui has a sound fluctuating between oi and ow (as in now). In most other combinations of vowels each retains its usual sound. All the consonants are pronounced as in English, except g and ch, which have a guttural sound like the ch in the Scotch word loch, or the g in the German Tag; w, which is pronounced like v; j like the English y or ee; and

A Dutch Meadow.

Windmill and Canal, Holland.

Windmills at Zaandam, Holland.

Scene on a Dutch Canal.



A Field of Hyacinths, Holland.

A Dutch Tulip Farm.

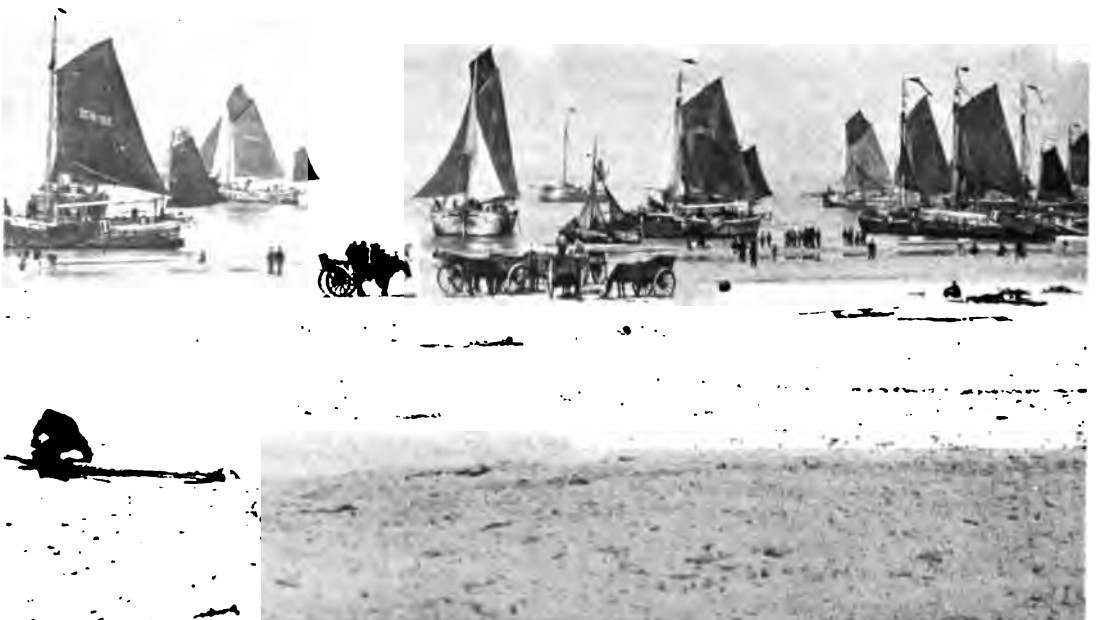
Cattle in the Meadows, Holland.

Dog-Cart, Volendam, Holland.

Milking the Cows, Holland.

Hollanders of the Island of Marken in Gala Attire.

A Dutch Fishing Boat.



A Fleet of Fishing Boats, Holland.

The Fishing Boats at the Island of Marken.

v like f. Final n is often dropped in colloquial speech (e. g., Leyde' for Leyden).

The definite article is de for the masculine and feminine, and het for the neuter; genitive des, der, des, or van den, van de, van het; dative den, der, den, or aan den, aan de, aan het; plural for all genders de, den, de.

Amsterdam is the capital of the kingdom, and the Hague is the official residence of the Queen and Consort, although they prefer to occupy the "House in the Wood," or "Huis ten Bosche." The Netherlands are divided into eleven provinces; North Brabant, the capital of which is Hertogenbosch; Drenthe, the capital of which is Assen; Friesland, capital Leeuwarden; Guelderland, capital Arnhem; Groningen, capital Groningen; North Holland, capital Amsterdam; South Holland, The Hague; Limburg, Maastricht, Over-Yssel, capital Zwolle; Utrecht, capital Utrecht; Zeeland, capital Middleburg. Besides these provinces, the district of Luxemburg, 210,000 inhabitants, capital of the same name is a Duchy under the crown. The most important Dutch colonies in the East Indies are Java, Sumatra, Borneo, and Celebes; in the West Indies, Surinam, St. Eustache,

and Curacao; to which must be added a number of factories or state holdings in Guiana. The total area of these possessions amounts to 766,000 square miles and the population to 28-29,000,000 souls. As near as one can find out, the navy consists in the neighborhood of 150 vessels, of which only a few are of the first class, commanded by two vice-admirals, four rear-admirals, " 'schouten-by-nacht," 26 captains, 35 commanders, and manned by upwards of 7,500 hands.

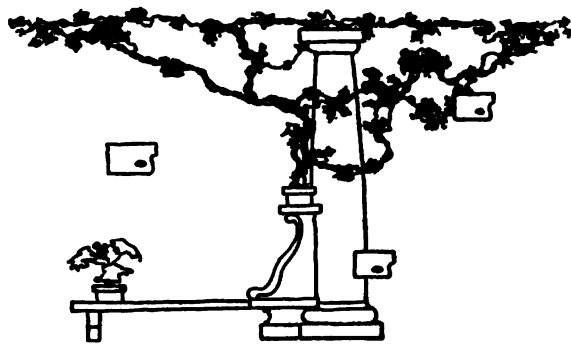
Now study a map of the country and we shall see that on two sides it is bounded by the German Ocean and on the other two by France and Germany. More than this, the latter boundaries are not made up of natural barriers; they are simply lines upon the map, passing through level districts and intersected by great rivers. Here then we might pause for a moment to see how the geographical factor has influenced this people. Although the sea coast stretched along but two sides of the country, it was one perhaps even more favorable to commerce than that of England, affording by its indentations innumerable refuges against the pīrates of former days, the chief enemies of trade. This relation to the sea made of the people from the earliest time, a race of sailors. Having no mountain ranges like the Alps, no rocky fastnesses like those of Switzerland, the low countries have in all ages been subject to the incursions of their lawless neighbors. "The cock pit of Europe," is the name given to this region in modern days, from the number of battles which have been fought upon its soil. To the enormous war expenses thrust upon them is largely due the comparative decline of these once all-powerful and wealthy provinces.

Still greater has been the influence of another feature of their geographical position. Manufactures and commerce brought wealth, and with it luxury, love of art, and learning, but especially in Holland, none of the enervation which usually follows. In most lands, accumulated wealth has bred a disinclination to labor, fostering a leisured

class, the great curse of a community. But here the time has never come when men could sit down and say their work was finished. Before them has ever stood the sea, daily and hourly threatening their existence. Their fathers made the land, but it is theirs to preserve only by incessant labor. A little crevice in their dykes, unnoticed for a few hours, might devastate a district. Even with the most watchful care, no man can go to bed at night, assured that in the morning he will find his possession safe. These conditions of life in the Netherlands must always be remembered if we would understand their history.

Everything in Holland is done in corporations. The people are a vast civic army, subdivided into brigades, regiments, and companies, all accustomed to discipline, learning the first great lesson of life, obedience. This daily contest with Nature, the regularity of life thus enforced, and the attention to minute details essential to existence, crush the romantic spirit which makes some nations picturesque. We find among them none of the wild sagas or chants of the northern people. No poet sings to them of goblins and fairy sprites. Their world is inhabited by actualities and by witches or the spirits of dead heroes. Hence, they were never highly poetical, as the English were until after the time of Shakespeare when they too became a race of manufacturers and merchants. They are not contemplative philosophers like the Germans; they dwell in no abstractions and indulge in little sentiment. Life here below has been their study; how to improve the condition of man upon this planet; how to make the home attractive by art, music, flowers, and social recreation; how to dispense justice to rich and poor alike, relieve the unfortunate, and give everyone an equal chance in life; how to protect the oppressed from other lands, keeping the conscience as well as the body free; how to teach the world that men can be rich without insolence, poor without discontent, learned without pride, artistic without

corruption, earnest in religion without bigotry. This is honor enough, as Douglas Campbell well says in his "Puritan in Holland, England, and America." Had these people also produced a Homer, a Dante, or a Shakespeare, they would have been a miracle and not a growth.



II. Rembrandt--First Article*

By George Breed Zug
Assistant Professor in the History of Art, University of Chicago.

REMBRANDT was born of well-to-do burgher parents in Leyden in 1606. As they hoped that their son would enter one of the learned professions they had him receive some instruction in Latin, but it is a disputed point whether he ever really studied in the university of his native town. He may easily have acquired through translations his knowledge of classic mythology which he shows in many pictures. Indeed very little study is necessary for a young man of Rembrandt's genius; with such as he, insight takes the place of learning. In an inventory of Rembrandt's possessions, made in 1656, only fifteen books are mentioned and those, we are told, were of a miscellaneous character. One of the books, however, was a Bible, which it seems was the master's constant companion.

His predilection for an artistic career was early apparent, and at the age of fourteen he was placed as a student under the painter Swanenburch. After three years of his instruction Rembrandt passed to the studio of Lastmann. It may be that Lastmann started Rembrandt in his study of *chiaroscuro*† during the short period of work under him. Little of importance can, however, be learned of the influence of these teachers of his youth. Upon leaving the studio of Lastmann at Amsterdam, Rembrandt returned to Leyden

*The first article of the series upon "Dutch Art and Artists" appeared in the September CHAUTAUQUAN, the subject "Frans Hals and the Portrait."

†An Italian word pronounced Kyáh-ro-skoó-ra. The art of handling light and shade in a picture so as to produce harmony.

and there settled down to a period of intense application and continual experiment which must have been the true foundation of his greatness. The earliest painting which has come down to us, "Saint Paul in Prison," of the Stuttgart Museum, bears the date of 1627. And although only a half dozen paintings executed in this and the succeeding five years are known today, yet he must have made good use of his time, for in 1632 was painted one of his masterpieces, "The Anatomy Lesson."

M. Michel, Rembrandt' biographer, has some interesting pages introductory to "The Anatomy Lesson" in which he relates the difficulty with which the more advanced Dutch scientists had had to contend in legalizing dissection of corpses. "It was violently opposed by the nation at large, the popular disapproval being mainly dictated by religious scruples based on the doctrine of the resurrection." It was about the turn of the sixteenth century that science prevailed and dissections became legalized. Whereupon a very great interest in the subject of anatomy arose and universities and guilds vied with each other in fitting out halls or Theaters of Anatomy. What then more natural than that Dutch art, "an art always swift to observe and eager to interpret the manifestations of natural life," should find here a subject for artistic interpretation? There are many persons who base their opinion of a work of art on their interest in the subject rather than upon the artistic elements, the drawing, the color, and the handling; to such this representation of a corpse may be repulsive. To others "The Anatomy Lesson" may seem at first not deserving of high praise. Fromentin says that "the general tone is neither warm nor cold, but simply yellow;" that the handling is thin and unimpassioned;—and that "there is little richness either in the stuffs, the background or the atmosphere." It is true there is not the atmospheric effect or the magic (or the poetry of light) of Rembrandt's later style; it is true as Fromentin says that the flesh of the corpse is puffy. But consider the treatment of this subject by Rembrandt's pred-

ecessors. With them the audiences were arranged either in monotonous symmetry or in confusion, while the spectators are staring out of the picture entirely unmindful of the master and his lesson; moreover revolting details are introduced. Compare with this the simplicity and dignity of Rembrandt's treatment. Doctor Tulp is seated in a vaulted chamber; forceps in hand, he lifts the tendons of the partly dissected arm, emphasizing his remarks with expressive gesture. One is struck by the self-forgetfulness of the doctor and his disciples who seem to hang upon his words. How delicately are the heads of his hearers drawn, how expressive their eyes, how attentive their look! By the interest in these heads, the prominence of the doctor, the play of light on the features, and the diagonal position of the cadaver with the feet in shadow, all attention is drawn from the latter. One does not think of any unattractiveness in the subject.

So important did the work appear to Rembrandt's contemporaries that the picture established his reputation. He was crowded with commissions. Fellow painters, diplomats, ladies of high degree, statesmen, clergymen, and philosophers were eager to be painted by the greatest master of the time. Some of them had to wait months to obtain the privilege of a sitting. More than forty portraits have been assigned to the years between 1632 and 1634. The flatness of the uppermost head, the nearly equal attention paid to each of the disciples, the precision of drawing, the thinness of the painting, and the lack of atmosphere are all traits which point to the early period of the painter's career. And though this, his first corporation piece, was his best work thus far, he was still learning his art and was destined to pass on to still greater things. It was the commission for "The Anatomy Lesson," destined for the Hall of Surgeons in Amsterdam, which led Rembrandt to move from Leyden to Amsterdam in 1632. There in that busy mart of commerce he was increasingly successful and about 1641 he received another commission for a great cor-

poration picture,—the so-called "Night Watch." As he became more sure of success he painted about 1640-42 a number of portraits which were not merely individualized likenesses after the manner of his earlier work and that of the Amsterdam school, but were rather artistic studies in which the face was only a note, as it were, in a harmony of color and light and shade. He occasionally worked in a more untrammelled manner, when he thought more of his art than of his sitter, when he ceased to paint mere transcripts of nature, and allowed himself to indulge his fancy and to paint as his genius suggested. It was this emancipated Rembrandt to whom there came in 1641-2 the commission to paint another of the corporation pieces in which he had achieved his success in the earlier period of comparative self-restraint.

The so-called "Night Watch" has been the subject of much discussion and difference of opinion. What is the subject and what is the idea it is intended to convey? For many years the picture hung in the meeting place of the corporation for which it was painted. Such halls were little more than tap rooms where the fumes from peat fires, the tobacco smoke of the burghers' pipes settled on the canvas, and the dirt and dust which accumulated upon it were covered again and again with coats of varnish. The result was so dark an effect that when one knows the facts one no longer marvels that the title of "The Night Watch" was given to the picture in the eighteenth century. Sir Joshua Reynolds writes of it in a way which shows he had no realization of the subject or the artistic character of the picture. It was not until late in the nineteenth century that the successive coats of dirt and varnish and repaint were removed and the real theme became apparent. Then it was discovered to be an open air scene, the sun high in the heavens casts the shadow of the outstretched hand of Captain Banning Cocq across the coat of the lieutenant who walks at his side. It is a call to arms of the Civic Guards, the captain and his lieutenant are coming forward as leaders of the party, four guardsmen whose heads appear above

those of the captain and his companion have just stepped out of the place of meeting and are raising spears and flag after having lowered them to pass through the arch, which is a part of the background (as may be verified from an old copy of the painting now in the National Gallery, London). An officer at the left is giving an order with a gesture of command, the drummer beats the signal, the members of the company are getting ready their weapons, and children rush upon the scene to participate in the excitement of the start. It is a scene of movement such as Rembrandt had often witnessed, but he treats it according to his fancy; he clothes the people in a variety of strange garments; introduces the odd squat figure of a girl in a saffron garment, and a boy in a huge helmet in the act of discharging his match-lock in dangerous proximity to the soldiers. There is in it all a certain air of strain and effort, something theatrical, and, even in its original state a use of light and shade which is too pronounced for an open air scene.

Compare this with the clarity and realism of "The Anatomy Lesson," or Van der Helst's "Officers of the Guild of Archers of Saint Adriaen," which we reproduce. This last painting and the similar picture by Hals show an even distribution of light and an equal prominence to each figure, which was what the officers desired. Hence this original treatment of a familiar subject was unwelcome to Captain Cocq and his comrades; it was objected that some of the officers were too prominent in the picture, while others were not prominent enough. The trouble was that his clients wished a series of portraits; Rembrandt preferred to produce a work of art. Hals and Van der Helst had pleased their sitters, Rembrandt with his usual independence strove only to please himself. He had produced a masterpiece of all time, a work of the imagination which was to be the admiration of artists for centuries to come; a poem in paint; but it lacked the plain prose to which his contemporaries were accustomed and it marked the beginning of his difficulties, and the waning of his popularity.

"The Anatomy Lesson." 1632. By Rembrandt. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.

"The Night Watch" (Sortie of the Civic Guard). 1642. By Rembrandt.
In the Rijiks Museum, Amsterdam.

"Officers of St. Adriaen's Shooting Company." By J. Van der Helst. In the Town Hall, Haarlem.

Portrait of Rembrandt, by Himself. 1640. National Gallery, London.
Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Co., New York.

Portrait of Rembrandt, by Himself. 1658. (Detail). In the Vienna Museum.

Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Company, New York.

The Mennonite Preacher, Anslo. 1641. By Rembrandt. In the Berlin Museum.
Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Company, New York.

"The Syndics of the Cloth Guild." 1661. By Rembrandt. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.

Portrait of an Old Woman. By Rembrandt. In the Vienna Museum.

Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Company, New York.

The most brilliant criticism of Rembrandt is that of Fromentin. In his "Les Maitres d' Autrefois" he propounds the theory that in the master there were two natures which were sometimes at variance, that of a realist and that of a pronounced idealist. As a realist Rembrandt is a skilled and sane interpreter of the people as they are and an admirable craftsman, a painter of the somewhat traditional type, the author of such portraits as the "Old Woman" of Vienna (here reproduced), but of consummate skill. As an idealist he is an original genius, a visionary, a magician in light and shade. In "The Night Watch," or more properly, "The Sortie of the Civic Guard," there is a certain strange mingling of timidity and strength, according to Fromentin a conflict between the realist and the idealist. A harmonious union of these two dual natures is seen in the important corporation picture of "The Syndics of the Cloth Guild," which he painted almost twenty years later in 1661.

No small reproduction can show what a difference there is between this work and "The Lesson in Anatomy", of almost thirty years earlier. Rembrandt with his usual intellectual curiosity had been experimenting all these years; the skilful hand and the deep-seeing eye produced here what sums up his life's work; never before had he produced such a masterpiece, never again in the eight years of life remaining to him was he to conceive and execute such a work of art. The Syndics or overseers of the Guild of Drapers are represented seated about a table where they have been engaged in verifying the accounts. It is as if someone has opened a door and surprised them at their occupation. They look up at the new comer in sturdy Dutch fashion. They are dressed in black with white collars and wear tall black hats. The servant, as becomes his office, takes his place in the background. The table is covered by a cloth of rich scarlet; a wainscot of yellowish brown wood forms the background. Unlike "The Anatomy Lesson" the picture is filled with atmosphere which the Syndics seem to breathe. The picture is treated broadly, the paint is heavy

and substantial, the surface is as beautiful in itself as that of any picture ever painted. The color is deep, subdued, and harmonious. Never has white been more beautifully painted; never has black been more richly translated into pigments.

When visitors to the Rijks Museum in Amsterdam stand before this painting there is a hush, for the picture, simple as it is, is solemn, eloquent, appealing, the culmination of the art of one of the masters of all time. These three great corporation pictures of which we have written should be taken as representative of Rembrandt's early, middle, and late periods, although these periods are not sharply defined the one from the other, but, rather, blend one into the other. The important thing to note is the steady progress of the master in his art, his constant increase in technical ability, in spiritual insight, and in ideality. Like other great masters of the brush he at first studied and reproduced the shapes of nature accurately and with care. He was laying the foundation of his knowledge of nature; gradually his style became broader and broader and his insight deeper. Comparison of these three great portrait groups show the three stages of his progress.

It remains to notice some of his other portraits. "Anslo Consoling the Widow," which may be taken to stand for the group of double portraits, was painted in 1641, one year before "The Night Watch." In this as in "The Shipbuilder and his Wife," and in "The Jewish Bride," Rembrandt beautifully unites two figures in thought and action. In the first named group, the minister Anslo is administering consolation to the widow from the pages of the open Bible. The expression of earnestness and the impressive gesture seem to comfort and sustain the widow. Rembrandt was gifted with the ability to suggest by a look and a movement the deeper things of life. This may be seen in the outstretched hands of "The Shipbuilder and his Wife," and in the upraised arm and alert look of the disciples in the "Christ at Emmaus." In this Rembrandt reminds one of two other

masters of other schools, Giotto and Millet. Different as they are from the painter of "The Night Watch," they too have the gift of significant gesture which may mean more than words. As he grew older Rembrandt seems indeed to have had an increasingly deeper vision. Whereas Hals interpreted the passing moods of men, Rembrandt seems in some of his later portraits to have penetrated their very souls. With this in mind compare the two portraits of himself which we reproduce. Of over fifty self portraits of the master which have come down to us, that in the National Gallery, London (here reproduced), cannot be excelled for its serene and delicate quality. It dates from 1640. He represents himself as a comparatively young man leaning slightly on a stone sill. The rich color shows through a luminous atmosphere. There are the gold and amber tones with which his palette was richly stored. The gradations of color and of light shade in the flesh tints are rendered with a most delicate art, and the drawing of the eyes and nose as subtle as with Holbein. And if there is no more charming self portrait by a great artist, there is at least another more profound.

In the half length portrait of himself in Vienna the head of which we reproduce, the artist strikes a deeper note. Reference is not made merely to the broader way of painting, the fusing of colors in this Vienna head, but to the psychological interpretation of the man. This head shows the Rembrandt who has been buffeted by fortune but who retains his indomitable will. Something of this spiritual insight, this penetration is seen in the "Old Woman" of the Vienna Gallery, and in a score of other portraits as well as in many of the master's scenes from the Old and New Testament. It places him on a higher plane than that occupied by any interpreter of the external man.

The seventeenth century produced unapproachable masters of the art of painting—the Flemish Rubens, the painter of exuberant vitality and epic grandeur, the Spanish Velasquez, the creator of profound harmonies in tone and color,

and the Dutch Rembrandt, the magician in light and shade. In all there is much the same development from precise workmanship and brilliant color to breadth of handling, mellow color, and penetration of character. In all three their art is many sided; in Rubens and Rembrandt it seems to be as wide and deep as life itself. In all three there is an universality in spirit and outlook.

We have tried to suggest something of the progress of Rembrandt's art, something of his variety and skill as a painter of corporation pictures, something of his insight in his portraits. He was one of those masters who seem to love paint in and for itself, in a word he was a painter. For the rendering of form, for significant gesture, for versatility and insight he remains unexcelled. But the quality for which he is unique remains to be emphasized. He was the greatest of all masters of chiaroscuro. Whereas the Italians compose in line, and Velasquez in tone, Rembrandt composes in light and shade. Nor is that all; Leonardo and Correggio seem to employ chiaroscuro for an end in itself, but Rembrandt uses it as a means of interpretation, as a method of rendering character, as suggestive of spirituality. There seems to breathe in the paintings of Rembrandt something of the mystery which pervades our life; many of his pictures seem to be full of meaning yet inexplicable.

We defer for another paper a brief notice of some of Rembrandt's other themes, his scenes of domestic life, his religious subjects, his landscapes, and his etchings. It is as impossible to sum up the great qualities of Rembrandt in a few sentences as it is to do justice in a paragraph to Shakespeare. If the latter was myriad-minded, the master of the "Syndics" was myriad-eyed. Understanding of such geniuses takes years of study of their works, and years of contemplation of what those works tell as to their creator's development, versatility, and universality.

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The bibilography given with the first article of this series in September should also be consulted for general works on Dutch painting, and suggestions regarding illustrations.

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Bréal, August. "Rembrandt, A Critical Essay." 75 cents. Suggestive criticism.

Brown, G. Baldwin. "Rembrandt, a Study of His Life and Work." (Library of Art Series.) $2.00. The life, the work, and the technique of Rembrandt are treated separately. An admirable book.

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In the Metropolitan Museum, New York, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, and Art Institute, Chicago, may be seen original examples of Rembrandt's work.

Vader Cats*

By Austin Dobson

TO an uninstructed reader the homely name that heads this paper does not, in itself, suggest any special distinction. When we are informed that Jacob Cats was a native of Holland, our first impression is of some typical Dutchman, squat-figured and stolid, preoccupied with a pipe and tulips. If it be added that he wrote verses, speculation goes no farther than to conceive a minstrel of the type of Longfellow's "Cobbler of Hagenau," chirruping his songs at his work-bench, and having ever

> "at his side,
> Among his leathers and his tools
> Reynard the Fox, the Ship of Fools,
> Or Eulenspiegel, open wide."

Each of these forecasts, however, is equally at fault. As a Dutchman, Jacob Cats was one of the prominent men of his age. He had gained honor as a Greek Scholar at Leyden University; he had traveled in France and England, visiting both Oxford and Cambridge. He was an accomplished jurist; and though—as some authorities allege—he had but little success as a politician, he was, at all events, a great civic dignitary in the great days of the Netherlands, holding important office as a magistrate at Middleburgh and Dordrecht, and ultimately proceeding Grand Pensionary of Holland. He was twice Ambassador to England, being knighted on the first occasion by Charles I. When finally, at the age of seventy-two, he obtained the permission of the States to retire into private life at his country-seat of Sorghvliet—his "Sans-Souci" or "Castle-Careless"—on the Scheveningen Road, it was as a man who on the whole had de-

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The illustrations are reproduced especially for THE CHAUTAUQUAN from the original edition of the works of Jacob Cats published in Amsterdam in 1655.

served well of his generation, and might fairly be permitted to "cultivate his garden," and write his "Reminiscences."

But if he acquired a reputation as a citizen, he earned a still greater reputation as a poet. He was a contemporary of Hooft and Vondel, and that delightful Tesselschade Visscher, of whom Mr. Edmund Gosse has given us so pleasant a portrait; and he was probably the most popular of the four. By his readers he was affectionately styled "Vader Cats;" and his collected works in familiar moments were known as the "Household Bible." His big folio was to be found by poor men's hearths and in the windows of the rich —even as Baker's "Chronicle" lay in the windows of Sir Roger de Coverley. When now we open the vast volume (*i. e.,* Jan Jacobz Schipper's Amsterdam edition of 1655), its bulk appals us. It is a book to be approached only from the side of dimension. It is so high: it measures so much about. Not to lay stress on the blackness of the type, which is in itself portentous, it is printed in two columns,—sometimes even in three. Turning the tall pages timidly, you become conscious, in addition to a Babel of proverbs and emblems in all languages, of a long didactic poem on "Marriage" (*Houwelick*), which traces that institution, with abundant illustration, from maidenhood to widowhood. Then of another, and a still longer effort, entitled "Nuptial Ring" (*Trou-ringh*), wherein it is treated, amongst other things, of Crates and Hipparchia, of Adam and Eve, of Masinissa and Sophonisba, of Eginhard and the daughter of Charlemagne, of Jacob and Rachel (Jacob, it may be noted in parenthesis, has apparently been educated in France, for in the picture he has carved "la belle Rachelle" upon a tree-trunk, and written under it "Vive L'Amour"). Then there is a pastoral romance" of "Galatea;" a poem on "Country-Life" (*Buytenleven*), in the frontispiece of which is a view of Sorgh-vliet, and towards the end of the book, another series of poems called cheerfully "Coffins for the Living" (*Doodt-Kiste voor de Levendige*). These are only part of the contents. Besides and between them are numerous other

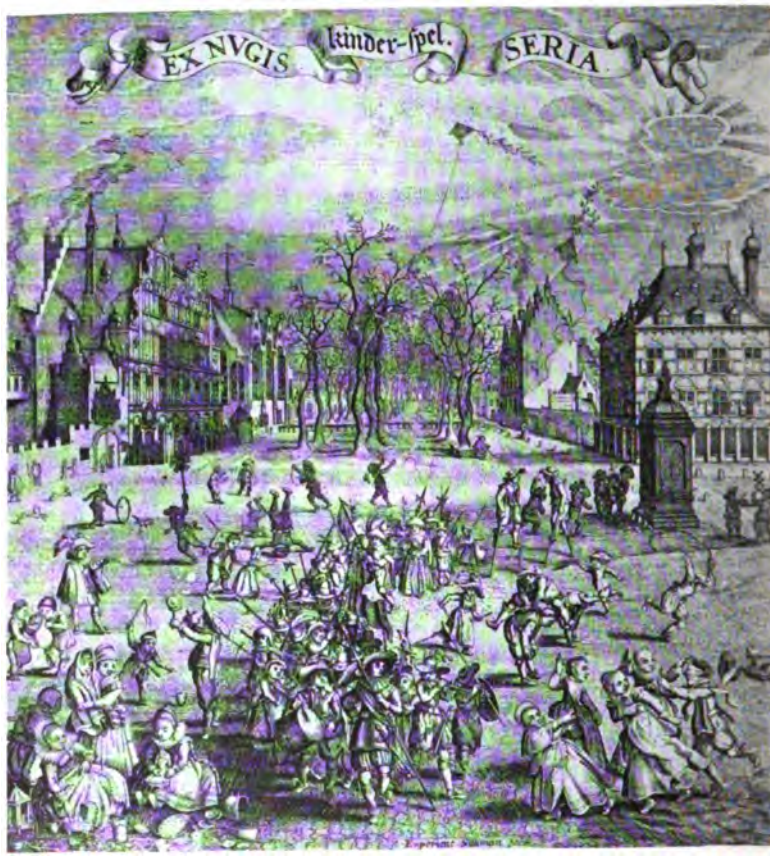
pieces, accompanied like the rest by prefaces and sub-prefaces, by appendices, excursuses, commentaries, head-notes, shoulder-notes, side-notes, foot-notes, postscripts, and addresses to the *Lector benignus* (*"goetgunstige Leser"*) which hedge them in on all sides. Poetry, with this Dutch poet, is not by any means a trickling rill from Helicon; it is an inundation *à la mode du pays,*—a flood in a flat land, covering everything far and near with its sluggish waters.

To this immoderate and incontinent effusiveness is probably to be attributed the fact that, notwithstanding their excellent precepts and praiseworthy morality, the poems of Jacob Cats do not seem to have largely attracted the translator. Report, indeed, affirms that his entire works have been "done into German;" but this would be of little service to the ordinary English reader. The French, on the other hand, have contented themselves with an imitation of the short piece entitled "Children's Games (*Kinder-Spel*). In our own country, multifarious old Thomas Heywood, the dramatist, paraphrased the first part of *Houwelick* under the title of "An Emblematicall Dialogue, interpreted from the excellent and most learned *D. Jac. Catsius;* which showeth how Virgins in their chaste loves ought to bear themselves." And as late as 1860 many of the emblems and proverbs were translated by Richard Pigot to accompany the "freely-rendered" cuts of John Leighton. But our concern here is less with the text than with the old copperplates which originally accompanied it, and which, fortunately for us, speak a universal language.

These, printed in the body of the page, are generally uniform in size, and surrounded by a conventional border. Many of them bear the initials or names of such well-known engravers as Hondius, the two Mathams, and Crispin van Queborn. But the main interest centers in the chief designer, Adrian van der Venne, a painter of considerable ability, and noted especially for the prodigious canvases on which, like the Frenchman Lebrun, he depicted the battles of the seventeenth century. After drifting to and fro,

Jacob Cats, Dutch Diplomat and Poet.

he seems to have settled at Middleburgh, where Cats also resided from 1602 to 1620. His brother, Jan Pietersz van der Venne, was a bookseller and publisher of the town, and for him he executed numberless book-illustrations in addition to those now under consideration. He is said also to have possessed no mean literary talent, and to have written satirical works. It is probably a natural consequence of his *modus operandi* that he should reproduce his environment; and many views and memories of the capital of Zee-



Children's Games—In the Background the Square of Middleburgh.

land and the surrounding country are traceable in his com positions. Perhaps the most interesting of these is to be found in the large head-piece of the above-mentioned "Children's Games," the background of which exhibits the great square of Middleburgh, with its old Gothic houses and central clump of trees. This is, moreover, as delightful a picture as any in the gallery. Down the middle of the foreground, which is filled by a crowd of figures, advances a

The Village Dance.

regiment of little Dutchmen, marching to drum and fife, and led by a fire-eating captain of fifteen. Around this central group are dispersed knots of children, playing leap-frog, flying kites, blowing bubbles, whipping tops, walking on stilts, skipping and the like. In one corner the boys are busy with blind-man's buff; in the other the girls, with their stiff head-dresses and vandyked aprons, are occupied with their dolls. Under the pump some seventeenth-century equivalent for chuck-far-thing seems to be going on vigorously; and, not to be behindhand in the fun, two little fellows in the distance are standing upon their heads. The whole composition is full of life and movement, and—so conservative is childhood—might, but for the costume and

A Dutch Interior.

scene, represent a playground of today. No doubt it represented, with far closer fidelity the playground of the artist's time.

It is this note of literalness—this truth to what lay nearest—that constitutes the chief charm of these illustrations. Many of those to the "Emblems" are quaint with that inventive strangeness and naïve ingenuity which have a fascination apart from technical merit. But, as a rule, the artist is strongest in what he has seen. His lions are more or less heraldic; his crocodiles are badly stuffed; and his salamanders of doubtful actuality. There is no such faltering when he shows us a hammer striking a flint on a cushion, or a pair of snuffers cropping a candle, or the interior of a blacksmith's shop. What applies to the still-life applies equally to the figures. When the subject is a tailor sitting cross-legged in

Formal Dutch Garden of the Seventeenth Century.

his stall, or a woman warming her feet and gazing into the embers, there is no doubt of the reality of the studies. Some of them, indeed, are finished works in *genre*.

What would one not give for such an illustrated copy of Shakespeare! In these pages of Jacob Cats we have the authentic Holland of the seventeenth century:—its vanes and spires and steep-roofed houses; its gardens with their geometric tulip-beds, their formally-clipped alleys and arches, their shining parallelograms of water. Here are its old-fashioned interiors, with the deep fireplaces and queer and-irons, the huge four-posters, the prim portraits on the wall, the great brass-clamped coffers and carved *armoires* for the ruffs and starched collars and stiff farthingales of the women. In one picture you may see the careful housewife mournfully inspecting a moth-eaten garment which she has just

"No one can, at the same time, love both Thetis and Galatea."

taken from a chest that Wardour Street might envy; in another she is energetically cuffing the "foolish fat scullion," who has let the spotted coach dog overturn the cauldron at the fire. Here an old crone, with her spectacles on, is cautiously proving the contents of the said cauldron with a fork; here the mistress of the house is peeling pears; here the plump and soft-hearted cheese-wife is entertaining an admirer. Outside there are pictures as vivid. Here are the clumsy leather-topped coach with its masked occupant and stumbling horses; the towed *trekschuit*, with its merry freight, sliding swiftly through the low-lying landscape; the windy mole, stretching seaward, with its flaring beacon fire. Here again in the street is the toy-shop with its open front

A Dutch Tailor's Shop in the Seventeenth Century.

and store of mimic drums and halberds for the martial little burghers; here are the fruiteress with her stall of grapes and melons, the rat-catcher with his string of trophies, the fowler and his clap-net, the furrier with his stock of skins. Many of the designs have also that additional interest which is universal as well as local. Such is the one to the proverb, "Between two stools one comes to the ground," or as Cats has it, "Nemo potest Thetidem simul et Galatean amare." The luckless Philander of the story has been trying to solve the problem but without success. He has been flirting among the sandhills with Thetis, who has her fish upon her head in "ocean-smelling osier;" and now

A Batavian "Marriage *à la mode*."

Galatea the milkmaid has come suddenly upon them in a hat which looks like an inverted basin with a tuft: and he will probably experience what is high-Dutch for a *mauvais quart d'heure*. Another illustrates as pertinently the adage, "It is ill hunting with unwilling hounds," although the dogs are but a detail in the landscape, and the real moral is pointed by humanity. "Griet," poor soul, shamefaced and ill-at-ease, stands awkwardly by the door-settle, looking away from the other actors in the drama, apparently her suitor and his father. By the purse in her hand we must conclude she is rich; by a certain constraint in her carriage we may perhaps also infer that she is not so well-born as her intended

"Love Asks Return."

It is, in fact, a Batavian "marriage *a la mode*" that is in progress, if such a word may be employed where nothing is progressing. For if the lady is simply passive, the gentleman, whose name is Claes, is violently demonstrative. He resists all efforts of his senior to bring him to the front—gesticulates wildly, and digs his right heel doggedly in the ground. He will none of her, nor all her "brooches, pearls, and owches,"—her gear and household stuff,—her rents and her comings-in.

The round cap and collar of the female figure in this picture, the short-skirt with its rigid folds and dark border,

Jacob and Rachel—The Inscription Reads: "La Belle Rachelle, Vive L'Amour."

the puffed shoulder-pieces and long chatelaine, remind us of one characteristic of these designs which might be anticipated in so observant an artist, but which not the less deserves especial mention. This is the excellence and variety of the costume. And it is not only the peasants and fish-women whose dress is faithfully reproduced, but that of the better classes is as scrupulously delineated. It would take a chapter to describe the wonderful cavaliers, with their long-plumed hats and slashed jerkins, their endless tags and aiglets and rosettes; or the sumptuous ladies with their broidered sleeves and purfled stomachers, and monumental ruffs. The design inscribed "Amor, ut pila, vices exigit," which may be roughly Englished by "Love asks return," is an example of this, which is as good as any. In a "trim garden," with symmetrically-clipped trees and hedges, a gentleman and a lady are playing at battledore and shut-

A Dutch Portrait Painter of the Seventeenth Century.

tlecock. The former, whose right foot is neatly turned out after the most approved fashion, so as to show the inside of his calf, has just delivered his blow; the latter leaps lightly to return it with as much agility as may be consistent with good manners and a buckramed state attire.

There is also a certain grim side to these Dutch moralities which is not without its significance. Through the whole series it peeps out here and there; but it is more plainly manifest in the later works, when we must suppose old age to be stealing upon the writer, and busying his thoughts with Calvinistic images of mortality and decay. The illustration to one of the these—a full-page plate—is certainly a most gruesome allegory of life. A man is seen scaling an apple-tree, which clings with snake-like roots to the side of a flaming pit or well, inhabited by a fearsome and ravening dragon. About the brim of the pit a restless

An Allegory of Life.

Adam and Eve in the Garden of Eden.

bear runs backwards and forwards, eager for its prey; but rats are gnawing busily at the tree-trunk and by and by the tree, climber and all, will topple crashing in the flames. Another composition—the frontispiece to the "Coffins for the Living"—takes up two pages, and is even more impressive. The scene is a kind of cemetery with magnificent sepulchral monuments, wherefrom the covers have been lifted so as to exhibit their mouldering tenants. To the right a party of richly-clad Orientals are gazing curiously at a crowned skeleton:—"Where are the riches of Croesus?" On the opposite side of the picture, a personage resembling an Eastern Mage, and a beautiful and majestic woman—perhaps the Queen of Sheba—bend wonderingly over a second tomb:—"Where is the wisdom of Solomon?" Here it is a group of soldiers that is attracted; there a group of heroes. But the main interest centers in front of a lofty canopy,

the sable curtains of which are drawn aside by grinning atomies, discovering a figure more pitiful than any in its forlorn and fleshless impotence:—"Where is the beauty of Helen?" "Was *this* the face that launch'd a thousand ships, and burned the topless towers of Ilium?" Surely a fruitful theme for the gray-haired sage of Sorgh-vliet, when the blast whistled keener through his wind-stripped espaliers, and the dead leaves gathered at the garden borders!

And here we close the great folio. But what a picture-book it must have been in the days when picture-books were fewer! One can imagine the Dutch children poring over it, much as Charles Lamb pored over the queer illustrations in Stackhouse's "History of the Bible." One can even fancy that their minds took a certain haunting after-color or savor from this early study, like the jar which, as Horace says, remembers its first wine. That the volume is a favorite with the distinguished Dutch artist, now naturalized among us, Sir Lawrence Alma-Tadema, is, perhaps, not remarkable; nor is it remarkable that (as Mr. Warter relates) it should have attracted the wandering and omnivorous appetite of Southey. But it is surely of special interest that it was among the first art-treasures of Reynolds, who loved it as a boy, and many of whose sketches—"done by Joshua out of pure idleness"—were copied from the gallery of "Vader Cats."

The German Kaiser

II. Impressions of Wolf von Schierbrand*

WILLIAM has often given public utterance to his conviction that the most potent support of his throne is the army. It is not surprising, therefore, that he has steadily aimed at keeping that pillar of his strength perfectly under his own control. In doing this he has made use of every available means. All the year round finds him busy attending parades, manoeuvers, anniversaries of battles, birthdays of sovereign or otherwise distinguished chiefs of a number of his regiments, and delivering speeches, toasts, formal or impromptu addresses, in which he never fails to inculcate precepts and traditions of loyalty and of every other military virtue, seizing, too, opportunities thus afforded him to pay compliments to the heads of allied or friendly nations, or to express other sentiments likely to benefit Germany in her political relations. Above all, though, he fraternizes with the officers of the army at luncheons or banquets given at their barracks, to which he invites himself. His after-dinner remarks on such occasions have often astounded the world, but from his own point of view, that of Commander-in-Chief of the army, they have been highly effective, and have tended to knit still more firmly the bonds which unite the army to his person. Then there is the entire category of rewards and punishments which he, as head of the army, dispenses at will—promotions, orders, and decorations, praise or censure meted out to individuals or bodies in army orders and bulletins, confirmations, revisions or nullifications of sentences imposed by courts-martial. It will easily be understood that these varied and constantly applied means alone suffice to make the influence of the Kaiser over his army an element of surpassing force. But to all this must be added the power he acquires through

*Quoted from "Germany: The Welding of a World Power," by Wolf von Schierbrand. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1902.

his "Military Cabinet." This is a bureau under his exclusive control, whose mission it is to supply him daily, by regular verbal or written reports, with that wealth of personal details about his army, and especially about the corps of officers, which enables him to know at all times the exact spirit and degree of efficiency noticeable in each regiment, even each company or squadron, and which lends to his personal relations with the army a spice of intimacy and comprehensive knowledge which is of enormous value. It is credibly asserted that the Kaiser personally knows half of the 25,000 officers in the German active army.

His "Naval Cabinet," whose scope of duties is similar, is largely responsible for his intimate knowledge of the ships and men composing the German navy. His constant visits to the naval vessels also have a share in this, and it is probably true that he knows every one of the one hundred and twenty-three vessels and 1,500 naval officers under his command. At the regular autumnal manoeuvers of the German navy he has, besides, an opportunity of testing the mettle of his ships and men.

As regards the citizen population, and more particularly the immense corps of government officials, his "Civil Cabinet," of which Herr von Lucanus is the dreaded chief, puts him in a position to acquire a great deal of similarly intimate knowledge about it. Thousands of petitions, letters of thanks, special reports, etc., reach him in the course of every year through this "cabinet" which give him a keen insight into the lives, ambitions, and aims of the middle and higher classes. The peculiar passion for titles and decorations, for which the Germans themselves have coined the word *"Titelsucht"* likewise furnishes the Kaiser with a strong lever by which to turn people at will. Every winter—on January 18th, as a rule—the so-called *"Ordensfest,"* or Fete of Decorations, is celebrated at the Berlin court, when between 5,000 and 8,000 newly decorated citizens, drawn from every walk of life, are invited to court, file before the Kaiser and his consort, and are subsequently regaled in a number of the most splendid apartments of the Old

Castle, and affably treated by a large and gorgeously attired body of flunkeys. Thus an indelibly sweet and powerful impression is left on the minds of this heterogeneous multitude, largely composed of unsophisticated and intensely loyal denizens of rural districts or smaller towns. The official organ of the empire on the afternoon of that day publishes a special edition, containing on a score of quarto pages the full names, callings, etc., of all these happy persons, together with a minute classification of the decorations and medals awarded, and all the newspapers in the empire reprint the list, wholly or in part. The present Kaiser has used this quite inexpensive but very effective mode of rewarding loyal subjects with steadily increasing lavishness, and has invented a number of new decorations, besides. He indulges the ambition for titles with like generosity and with like effect.

By vastly increasing the splendors of his court the Kaiser has also materially heightened his personal influence. The simple and unostentatious manners and customs prevailing at the Berlin court during the days of William I. have been superseded by an elaborateness of ceremonial, a brilliancy of appointments and costumes, and a display of taste and refined luxury which rival, and in some features even surpass, the elegancies of the Tuileries under Napoleon III. The exterior and interior of Berlin Castle, and of several other royal homes belonging to the Prussian monarchs, have been renovated and embellished, and connoisseurs claim that the so-called White Hall in Berlin Castle, in its new guise, is the most beautiful and chaste extant. The banquets given by the Kaiser on grand days enjoy a deservedly high reputation among European diplomats, and the royal cellars are unequaled today in any capital. The pressure to attend the Berlin court festivities has on account of all this become stronger every year, as the list of festivities has been published by the chief court marshal, and even many distinguished strangers have strenuously exerted themselves to that end. But in like ratio has the Kaiser's tendency increased to render these festivities exclusive.

All these means used by the Kaiser to extend and strengthen his influence on every class of the population are legitimate. But some other means he uses are open to serious objection, for they amount to nothing less than an overriding of the constitution. It was Bismarck who drew up this fundamental instrument, and it contains provisions clearly defining not alone the powers and prerogatives of the Emperor, but also those of the Imperial Chancellor, One of these provisions is to the effect that every public utterance of the Emperor, oral or written, must receive the sanction of the Imperial Chancellor to acquire the character of a government emanation. Without that, such utterances are to be considered merely as private enunciations, having no binding force on the sovereign, the government, or the nation. The constitution provides that 'every document signed or written by the Emperor in his public capacity must have the countersignature of the Imperial Chancellor, whereby he, the Chancellor, assumes the responsibility for it toward the nation and its representatives in Bundesrath and Reichstag, and becomes amenable to them. Bismarck in his Memoirs says that the intent was to render the Chancellor alone responsible, he having identified himself with the monarch's act or expression by his signature, and thus "shield" the sovereign; the further inference being that if it becomes manifest at any time that the nation, through the majority of its representatives, disapproves of measures or opinions thus endorsed by the Chancellor, the sovereign has the simple remedy of dismissing the Chancellor and appointing a successor —which would be the pure parliamentary form of government.

This important provision of the German constitution has been practically nullified by the Kaiser for many years past. He has declared himself in favor of projects or pending measures; he has proclaimed a new policy, or an important alteration in an old one; he has launched the ship of state into the troubled waters of a dangerous adventure,

without even first consulting with his Chancellor. This he did throughout the Hohenlohe regime, and he has done it on several occasions since the present Chancellor came into power. The seizure of Kiaochou was a step undertaken not alone without the knowledge of the Chancellor, but directly against his will. If Germany at that time had become involved in war with China, that war would have been due to a flagrant violation of the constitution by the Kaiser. Public declarations have been made scores of times by the Kaiser, condemning or approving men and measures, without previous consultation with his Chancellors. Yet, while thus ignoring the constitution himself, the Kaiser has, when such utterances of his were adversely criticised, taken advantage of the existing very illiberal judicial practice, in prosecuting such critics whom he, on a conspicuous occasion, styled *"Norgler"* (fault-finder), and whom he advised to "shake the dust of the fatherland off their shoes." If these utterances of his had been made with the consent, or over the signature, of the Imperial Chancellor, they would have become fit subjects for criticism within reasonable bounds. But by this doubly unfair proceeding on the Kaiser's part neither the Reichstag nor the nation at large is permitted to pronounce public judgment on his sayings and doings.

Again, the Kaiser has, contrary to the constitution, practically monopolized the direction of the foreign policy of Germany for many years—in fact, ever since the retirement of Bismarck. The empire's foreign policy, by the explicit terms of the constitution, is left wholly to the Chancellor. If the Kaiser be not satisfied with the Chancellor's foreign policy, he can dismiss him. But the Kaiser found it more to his taste to shape the empire's policy entirely according to his own ideas, making the Chancellor, at least in this important respect, a mere figurehead. Bismarck, with whom he first tried these tactics, would not submit and was retired. Caprivi, a soldier before being a statesman, and regarding the Kaiser solely as his commander-in-chief, obeyed blindly. Hohenlohe, who was of a different moral and in-

tellectual fibre, disliked being thus cavalierly treated, and finally resigned. How long von Buelow will submit to this treatment remains to be seen.

It is the personal influence of the Kaiser which is most potent. His forceful personality simply compels attention. For years after his accession millions of Germans stood aloof, ignoring his kaleidoscopic activity, and firmly believing that after he had "sown his wild oats," and after the novelty of the situation into which he had been summoned so unexpectedly had worn off, he would cease his pyrotechnic interference in every phase of public life. But these would-be "indifferents" were forced to abandon their attitude. When, after one of his speeches, often ill-advised, flamboyant and overshooting the mark, but always striking and earnest, the press of the whole world would be ringing with comment, and at every German fireside heated discussions *pro* and *con* would take place, these sober-minded Germans while still condemning his methods, found it impossible to stand supinely aside. The Kaiser, on every weighty problem that came to the surface for solution would split the nation into two hostile camps, stimulating discussion and keeping both adherents and opponents of his views at fever heat. It is this sensational side of his personal influence, probably more than any other, which has been, and is still being, felt most strongly. Into every political campaign in Germany he has thrown firebrands in the shape of mottoes, pithy and apt sayings, sarcastic allusions, or ironical retorts to his adversaries. Every weapon of warfare has been successfully employed by him.

Now and then he has been checkmated, or even defeated outright. The several attempts made by him to bring about anti-Socialist legislation have been foiled. The great Reichstag election of 1898 went strongly against him, and this despite his vigorous interference, and brought an increase of strength to the Socialists. Both the Reichstag and the Diet refused, in the face of the Kaiser's urgings, to pass laws (the so-called *"Lex Heinze"* and *"Lex Arons"*) which would virtually have throttled the remnant of public and pri-

vate freedom of speech and thought, though in this fight he had the Center with him and nearly the solid Conservative faction. The Diet, on two conspicuous occasions, and notwithstanding the fact that the Kaiser had publicly, repeatedly and in emphatic language pledged himself personally in favor of it, refused to sanction the construction of the Midland Canal.

These are important and far-reaching measures in which he was worsted, but he had a like experience on many minor occasions. A conspicuous instance was the struggle between the Kaiser and the Prince-Regent of Lippe, ruler of a small state comprising but 1,215 square kilometers, with a total population of 139,000. The regent of this petty principality had been, prior to his accession, a mere count of modest means and a major in the Prussian army. Yet in his earnest attempt to unseat this ruler of an unimportant fragment of the empire, the Kaiser was signally defeated; and as his object had been to supplant Prince Ernest by his (the Kaiser's) brother-in-law, Prince Adolph of Schaumburg-Lippe, and as the committee of arbitration deciding against him had been presided over by the Kaiser's friend, the late King Albert of Saxony, this defeat was the more galling.

However, despite occasional rebuffs, the Kaiser, in nine cases out of ten, has had his way, and is likely to have it in the future. His influence today is felt more strongly than that of any other single factor in Germany. In some ways this has been beneficial to Germany. It has led to the adoption of a most comprehensive plan of naval increase. It has infused more enterprise and self-confidence into the nation. It has inaugurated Germany's world policy. Despite the fact that the nation gave undue prominence to sentimental considerations during the Spanish and the Boer wars, and thereby embittered relations, first with this country, and next with England, it has steered the ship of state so cleverly as to lead to the present *rapprochement* with this nation, and to at least a maintenance of correct relations with England. Perhaps, however, the same results might have been obtained

by the Imperial Chancellors, if they had been left untrammelled to the exercise of their constitutional functions.

The Kaiser's influence upon education and upon science in Germany has been great and, in the main, wholesome. He has clearly perceived the urgent need of remodelling the German educational system on new lines—lines more in accord with the requirements of this age of practical things; and his ideas, though at first they met the united opposition of the professional pedagogues of the old school, are now slowly prevailing. In the wide domain of applied science the Kaiser's influence has also wrought a vast amount of good.

But the incalculable harm done by the Kaiser's influence in other fields of public life probably more than balances accounts. For one thing, it has lowered the national standard of political thought and liberty. To all intents and purposes Germany, though nominally enjoying a constitutional form of government, is ruled autocratically. This is a curious instance of political atavism, when the previous history of political development in Germany during the nineteenth century is considered.

On German literary and art life the personal influence of the Kaiser has also been noxious in the highest degree. He has waged, with more or less success, a savage war upon that highly interesting movement known variously as "Secessionist" or "Realistic" and of which, in literature, Hauptmann and Sudermann have been the main standard-bearers, and in art, Böcklin, Liebermann, Klinger, Thoma, Stuck, and others. With all his might he has fought this movement, the most promising Germany has known for a century, and despite its extreme and unwise partisans one powfully moulding German thought and ideals. In place of it the Kaiser has, so far as lay in his power, substituted tame mediocrity, as strikingly exemplified by his own marble "ancestral gallery" in the Siegesallee in Berlin, and by the bombastic historical drama of Joseph Lauff, the latter owing their very existence to the Kaiser's inspiration.

The Most Photographed Sovereign in Europe in One of His Uniforms.

The Kaiser in yet another Uniform.

But perhaps the most portentous injury, and certainly the most completely achieved, done to German public life by the Kaiser's personal influence, is that inflicted upon the press and periodical literature. Honest expression of opinion, whenever it contravened the Kaiser's ideas and convictions, has been so persistently and severely punished that it may be said to be effectually muzzled. There has never been any regime in Germany, so far as the records go, during which convictions for *lese majeste* and all sorts of press offenses have been even approximately as numerous. All this is not only in consonance with the Kaiser's wishes, but it is in large measure directly due to him, the appointment of the judges forming the highest tribunal in the empire, and the positions leading up to this highest court, being under his control. The Kaiser has never during the fourteen years of his reign pardoned a single one of these offenders against his own dignity, nor even shortened, in any instance, their penalty. Besides, he is on record with many sayings wherein he expressed nothing less than downright hostility to a free press.

In the Kaiser's veins mingle strange and unharmonious elements—the blood of the Hohenzollerns, than which there is none more matter-of-fact in Europe, nor more cool and well disciplined, and the blood of the Guelphs, than which there is none more stubborn, proud and unruly. William II. shows very distinctly this double lineage in his physical as well as his mental make-up. When one keeps this in mind, the discordant qualities of his personal influence, in its baneful as well as its beneficial effects, are more justly appreciated and adjusted.

The Siege and Relief of Leyden

The siege and relief of Leyden in 1573-1574 was one of the most dramatic episodes in the Dutch war of independence. The historian Motley, in his great work, "The Rise of the Dutch Republic," has told the story of this in some of the most thrilling pages of history ever written. The cutting of the dykes by means of which the relieving fleet sailed inland to the very walls of the city may be readily visualized by referring to the old map here reproduced.

According to the advice early given by the Prince of Orange, the citizens [of Leyden] had taken an account of their provisions of all kinds, including the livestock. By the end of June, the city was placed on a strict allowance of food, all the provisions being purchased by the authorities at an equitable price. Half a pound of meat and half a pound of bread was allotted to a full grown man, and to the rest, a due proportion. The city being strictly invested, no communication, save by carrier pigeons, and by a few swift and skilful messengers, called jumpers, was possible. Sorties and fierce combats were, however, of daily occurrence, and a handsome bounty was offered to any man who brought into the city gates the head of a Spaniard. The reward was paid many times, but the population was becoming so excited and so apt, that the authorities felt it dangerous to permit the continuance of these conflicts. Lest the city, little by little, should lose its few disciplined defenders, it was now proclaimed, by sound of church bell, that in future no man should leave the gates.

The Prince had his headquarters at Delft and at Rotterdam. Between those two cities, an important fortress, called Polderwaert, secured him in the control of the alluvial quadrangle, watered on two sides by the Yssel and the Meuse. On the 29th of June, the Spaniards, feeling its value, had made an unsuccessful effort to carry this fort by storm. They had been beaten off, with the loss

of several hundred men, the Prince remaining in possession of the position, from which alone he could hope to relieve Leyden. He still held in his hand the keys with which he could unlock the ocean gates and let the waters in upon the land, and he had long been convinced that nothing could save the city but to break the dykes. * * * He determined that these should be pierced, while, at the same time, the great sluices at Rotterdam, Schiedam, and Delftshaven should be opened. The damage to the fields, villages, and growing crops would be enormous, but he felt that no other course could rescue Leyden, and with it the whole of Holland from destruction. His clear expositions and impassioned eloquence at last overcame all resistance. By the middle of July the estates fully consented to his plan, and its execution was immediately undertaken. "Better a drowned land than a lost land," cried the patriots, with enthusiasm, as they devoted their fertile fields to desolation.

THE "SEA-BEGGARS."

On the 1st of September, Admiral Boisot arrived out of Zealand with a small number of vessels, and with eight hundred veteran sailors. A wild and ferocious crew were those eight hundred Zealanders. Scarred, hacked, and even maimed, in the unceasing conflicts in which their lives had passed; wearing crescents in their caps, with the inscription, "Rather Turkish than Popish;" renowned far and wide, as much for their ferocity as for their nautical skill; the appearance of these wildest of the "Sea-beggars" was both eccentric and terrific. They were known never to give nor to take quarter, for they went to *mortal* combat only, and had sworn to spare neither noble nor simple, neither king, kaiser, nor pope, should they fall into their power.

More than two hundred vessels had been now assembled, carrying generally ten pieces of cannon, with from ten to eighteen oars, and manned with twenty-five hundred veterans, experienced both on land and water. The work was now undertaken in earnest. The distance from Leyden to the outer dyke, over whose ruins the ocean had already been admitted, was nearly fifteen miles. This reclaimed territory, however, was not maintained against the sea by these external barriers alone. The flotilla made its way with ease to the Land-scheiding, a strong dyke within five miles of Leyden, but here its progress was arrested. The approach to the city was surrounded by many strong ramparts, one within the other, by which it was defended against its ancient enemy, the ocean, precisely like the circumvallations by means of which it was now assailed by its more recent enemy, the Spaniard. To enable the fleet, however, to sail over the land, it was necessary to break through this two-fold series of defences. Between the Land-scheiding and

Leyden were several dykes, which kept out the water; upon the level territory, thus encircled, were many villages, together with a chain of sixty-two forts, which completely occupied the land. All these villages and fortresses were held by the veteran troops of the King; the besieging force being about four times as strong as that which was coming to the rescue.

The Prince had given orders that the Land-scheiding, which was still one-and-a-half feet above water, should be taken possession of, at every hazard. On the night of the 10th and 11th of September this was accomplished, by surprise, and in a masterly manner. The few Spaniards who had been stationed upon the dyke were all despatched or driven off and the patriots fortified themselves upon it, without the loss of a man. As the day dawned, the Spaniards saw the fatal error which they had committed in leaving this bulwark so feebly defended, and from two villages which stood close to the dyke, the troops now rushed in considerable force to recover what they had lost. A hot action succeeded, but the patriots had too securely established themselves. They completely defeated the enemy, who retired, leaving hundreds of dead on the field, and the patriots in complete possession of the Land-scheiding.

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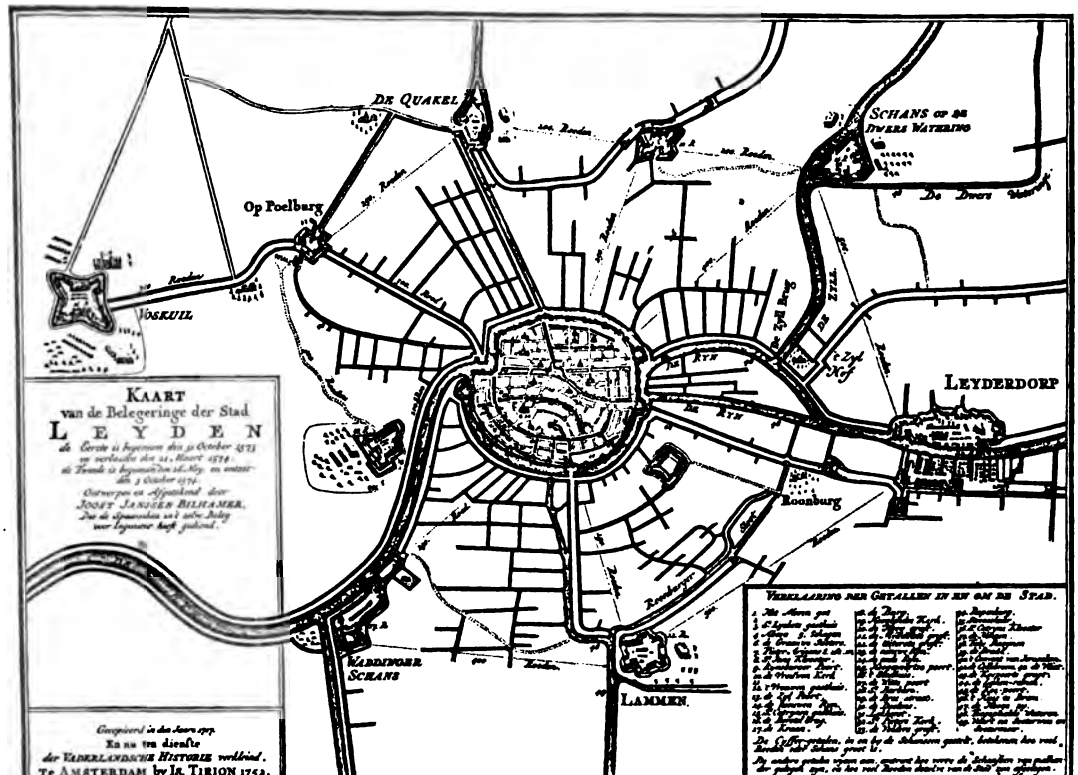
HOW THE DYKES WERE TAKEN.

The great dyke having been thus occupied, no time was lost in breaking it through in several places, a work which was accomplished under the very eyes of the enemy. The fleet sailed through the gaps; but, after their passage had been effected in good order, the Admiral found, to his surprise, that it was not the only rampart to be carried. The Prince had been informed, by those who claimed to know the country, that, when once the Land-scheiding had been passed, the water would flood the country as far as Leyden, but the "Green-way," another long dyke, three-quarters of a mile farther inward, now rose at least a foot above the water, to oppose their further progress. Fortunately, by a second and still more culpable carelessness, this dyke had been left by the Spaniards in as unprotected a state as the first had been. Promptly and audaciously Admiral Boisot took possession of this barrier also, levelled it in many places, and brought his flotilla in triumph, over its ruins. Again, however, he was doomed to disappointment. A large mere, called the Freshwater Lake, was known to extend itself directly in his path about midway between the Land-scheiding and the city. To this piece of water, into which he expected to have instantly floated, his only passage lay through one deep canal. The sea which had thus far borne him on, now diffusing itself over a very wide surface, and under the influence of an adverse wind, had become too shallow for his ships. The canal alone was deep



Eighteenth Century Map of Leyden Showing Topography of Country at Time of Siege.

Library Shelf

enough, but it led directly towards a bridge, strongly occupied by the enemy. Hostile troops, moreover, to the amount of three thousand occupied both sides of the canal. The bold Boisot, nevertheless, determined to force his passage, if possible. Selecting a few of his strongest vessels, his heaviest artillery, and his bravest sailors, he led the van himself, in a desperate attempt to make his way to the mere. He opened a hot fire upon the bridge, then converted into a fortress, while his men engaged in hand-to-hand combat with a succession of skirmishers from the troops along the canal. After losing a few men, and ascertaining the impregnable position of the enemy, he was obliged to withdraw, defeated, and almost despairing.

A week had elapsed since the great dyke had been pierced, and the flotilla now lay motionless in shallow water, having accomplished less than two miles. The wind, too, was easterly, causing the sea rather to sink than to rise. Everything wore a gloomy aspect, when, fortunately, on the 18th, the wind shifted to the northwest, and for three days blew a gale. The waters rose rapidly, and before the second day was closed the armada was afloat again. Some fugitives from Zoetermeer village now arrived and informed the Admiral that, by making a detour to the right, the could completely circumvent the bridge and the mere. They guided him, accordingly, to a comparatively low dyke, which led between the villages of Zoetermeer and Benthuyzen. A strong force of Spaniards was stationed in each place, but, seized with panic, instead of sallying to defend the barrier, they fled inwardly toward Leyden, and halted at the village of North Aa.

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THE SITUATION AT LEYDEN.

Meantime, the besieged city was at its last gasp. The burghers had been in a state of uncertainty for many days; being aware that the fleet had set forth for their relief, but knowing full well the thousand obstacles which it had to surmount. They had guessed its progress by the illumination from the blazing villages; they had heard its salvos of artillery, on its arrival at North Aa; but since then, all had been dark and mournful again, hope and fear, in sickening alteration, distracting every breast. They knew that the wind was unfavorable, and at the dawn of each day every eye was turned wistfully to the vanes of the steeples. So long as the easterly breeze prevailed, they felt, as they anxiously stood on towers and housetops, that they must look in vain for the welcome ocean. Yet, while thus patiently waiting, they were literally starving; for even the misery endured at Harlem had not reached that depth and intensity of agony to which Leyden was now reduced. Bread, malt-cake, horse-flesh, had entirely disappeared; dogs, cats, rats, and other vermin, were esteemed luxuries. A small number of cows,

kept as long as possible, for their milk, still remained; but a few were killed from day to day, and distributed in minute proportions, hardly sufficient to support life among the famishing population. * * * The pestilence stalked at noonday through the city, and the doomed inhabitants fell like grass beneath its scythe. From six thousand to eight thousand human beings sank before this scourge alone, yet the people resolutely held out—women and men mutually encouraging each other to resist the entrance of their foreign foe—an evil more horrible than pest or famine.

The missives from Valdez, who saw more vividly than the besieged could do, the uncertainty of his own position, now poured daily into the city, the enemy becoming more prodigal of his vows, as he felt that the ocean might yet save the victims from his grasp. The inhabitants, in their ignorance, had gradually abandoned their hopes of relief, but they spurned the summons to surrender. Leyden was sublime in its despair. A few murmurs were, however, occasionally heard at the steadfastness of the magistrates, and a dead body was placed at the door of the burgomaster, as a silent witness against his inflexibility. A party of the more faint-hearted even assailed the heroic Adrian Van der Werf with threats and reproaches as he passed through the streets. A crowd had gathered around him, as he reached a triangular place in the center of the town, into which many of the principal streets emptied themselves, and upon one side of which stood the church of Saint Pancras, with its high brick tower surmounted by two pointed turrets, and with two ancient lime trees at its entrance. There stood the burgomaster, a tall, haggard, imposing figure, with dark visage, and a tranquil but commanding eye. He waved his broad-leaved felt hat for silence, and then exclaimed, in language which has been almost literally preserved:

"What would ye, my friends? Why do ye murmur that we do not break our vows and surrender the city to the Spaniards? a fate more horrible than the agony which she now endures. I tell you I have made an oath to hold the city, and may God give me strength to keep my oath! I can die but once; whether by your hands, the enemy's, or by the hand of God. My own fate is indifferent to me, not so that of the city intrusted to my care. I know that we shall starve if not soon relieved; but starvation is preferable to the dishonored death which is the only alternative. Your menaces move me not; my life is at your disposal; here is my sword, plunge it into my breast, and divide my flesh among you. Take my body to appease your hunger, but expect no surrender, so long as I remain alive."

The words of the stout burgomaster inspired a new courage in the hearts of those who heard him, and a shout of applause and defiance arose from the famishing but enthusiastic crowd. They left the place, after exchanging new vows of fidelity with their mag-

istrate, and again ascended tower and battlement to watch for the coming fleet.

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THE SEA ASSISTS THE HOLLANDERS.

A violent equinoctial gale, on the night of the 1st and 2nd of October, came storming from the northwest, shifting after a few hours full eight points, and then blowing still more violently from the southwest. The waters of the North Sea were piled in vast masses upon the southern coast of Holland, and then dashed furiously landward, the ocean rising over the earth, and sweeping with unrestrained power across the ruined dykes.

In the course of twenty-four hours, the fleet at North Aa, instead of nine inches, had more than two feet of water. No time was lost. The Kirk-way, which has been broken through according to the Prince's instructions, was now completely overflowed, and the fleet sailed at midnight, in the midst of the storm and darkness. A few sentinel vessels of the enemy challenged them as they steadily rowed towards Zoeterwoude. The answer was a flash from Boisot's cannon, lighting up the black waste of waters. There was a fierce midnight naval battle; a strange spectacle among the branches of those quiet orchards, and with the chimney stacks of half-submerged farm houses rising around the contending vessels. The neighboring village of Zoeterwoude shook with the discharges of the Zealanders' cannon, and the Spaniards assembled in that fortress knew that the rebel Admiral was at last afloat and on his course. The enemy's vessels were soon sunk, their crews hurled into the waves. On went the fleet, sweeping over the broad waters which lay between Zoeterwoude and Zwieten. As they approached some shallows, which led into the great mere, the Zealanders dashed into the sea, and with sheer strength shouldered every vessel through. Two obstacles lay still in their path—the forts of Zoeterwoude and Lammen, distant from the city five hundred and two hundred and fifty yards respectively. Strong redoubts, both well supplied with troops and artillery, they were likely to give a rough reception to the light flotilla, but the panic which had hitherto driven their foes before the advancing patriots, had reached Zoeterwoude. Hardly was the fleet in sight when the Spaniards, in the early morning, poured out from the fortress, and fled precipitately to the left, along a road which led in a westerly direction towards the Hague. Their narrow path was rapidly vanishing in the waves, and hundreds sank beneath the constantly deepening and treacherous flood. The wild Zealanders, too, sprang from their vessels upon the crumbling dyke and drove their retreating foes into the sea. They hurled their harpoons at them, with an accuracy acquired in many a polar chase; they plunged into the waves in the keen pursuit, attacking

The Old Rhine, Leyden, from the Spaniards' Bridge.

Spaniards' Bridge, Leyden. From an old Engraving.

Peter A. van der Werf, the heroic Burgomaster of Leyden during the Siege.

them with boat-hook and dagger. The numbers who thus fell beneath these corsairs, who neither gave nor took quarter, were never counted, but probably not less than a thousand perished. The rest effected their escape to the Hague.

The first fortress was thus seized, dismantled, set on fire, and passed, and a few strokes of the oars brought the whole fleet close to Lammen. This last obstacle rose formidable and frowning directly across their path. Swarming as it was with soldiers, and bristling with artillery, it seemed to defy the armada either to carry it by storm or to pass under its guns into the city. It appeared that the enterprise was, after all, to founder within sight of the long expecting and expected haven. Boisot anchored his fleet within a respectful distance, and spent what remained of the day in carefully reconnoitering the fort, which seemed only too strong. In conjunction with Leyderdorp, the headquarters of Valdez, a mile and a half distant on the right, and within a mile of the city, it seemed so insuperable an impediment that Boisot wrote in despondent tone to the Prince of Orange. He announced his intention of carrying the fort, if it were possible, on the following morning, but if obliged to retreat, he observed, with something like despair, there would be nothing for it but to wait for another gale of wind. If the waters should rise sufficiently to enable them to make a wide detour, it might be possible, if, in the meantime, Ley-

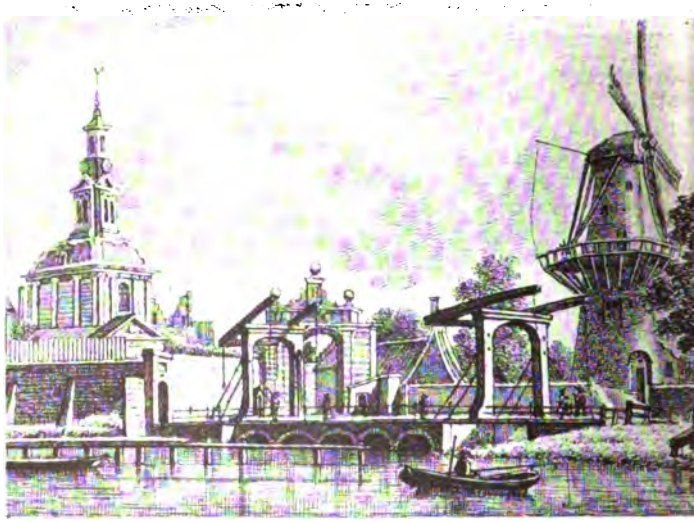
Don Franciscus de Valdez, Commander of the Spanish Forces which Besieged Leyden.

Jean van der Does of Noordwyk, in Command of Leyden during the Siege.

den did not starve or surrender, to enter its gates from the opposite side.

Meantime, the citizens had grown wild with expectation. A dove had been dispatched by Boisot, informing them of his precise position, and a number of citizens accompanied the burgomaster, at nightfall, toward the tower of Hengist—"Yonder," cried the magistrate, stretching out his hand toward Lammen, "yonder behind that fort are bread and meat, and brethren in thousands. Shall all this be destroyed by the Spanish guns, or shall we rush to the rescue of our friends?" "We will tear the fortress to pieces with our teeth and nails," was the reply, "before the relief, so long expected, shall be wrested from us." It was resolved that a sortie, in conjunction with the operations of Boisot, should be made against Lammen with the earliest dawn. Night descended upon the scene, a pitch dark night, full of anxiety to the Spaniards, to the armada, to Leyden. Strange sights and sounds occurred at different moments to bewilder the anxious sentinels. A long procession of lights issuing from the fort was seen to flit across the black face of the waters, in the dead of night, and the whole of the city wall, between the Cow-gate and the Tower of Burgundy, fell with a loud crash. The horror-struck citizens thought that the Spaniards were upon them at last; the Spaniards imagined the noise to indicate a

The Sea Gate, Leyden. From an old Engraving.



The Witte Gate, Leyden. From an old Engraving.

desperate sortie of the citizens. Everything was vague and mysterious.

Day dawned at length, after a feverish night, and the Admiral prepared for the assault. Within the fortress reigned a death-like stillness which inspired a sickening suspicion. Had the city, indeed, been carried in the night; had the massacre already commenced; had all this labor and audacity been expended in vain? Suddenly a man was descried wading breast-high through the water from Lammen towards the fleet, while at the same time, one solitary boy was seen to wave his cap from the summit of the fort. After a moment of doubt, the happy mystery was solved. The Spaniards had fled, panic-stricken, during the darkness. Their position would still have enabled them, with firmness, to frustrate the enterprise of the patriots, but the hand of God, which had sent the ocean and the tempest to the deliverance of Leyden, had struck her enemies with terror likewise. The lights which had been seen moving during the night were the lanterns of the retreating Spaniards, and the boy who was now waving his triumphant signal from the battlements had alone witnessed the spectacle. So confident was he in the conclusion to which it led him that he had volunteered at daybreak to go hither and alone. The magistrates, fearing a trap, hesitated for a moment to believe the truth, which soon, however, became quite evident. Valdez, flying himself from Leyderdorp, had ordered Colonel Borgia to retire with all his troops from Lammen. Thus, the Spaniards had retreated at the very moment that an extraordinary accident had laid bare a whole side of the city for their entrance. The noise of the wall, as it fell, only inspired them with fresh alarm; for they believed that the citizens had sallied forth in the darkness, to aid the advancing flood in the work of destruction. All obstacles being now removed, the fleet swept by Lammen and entered the city on the morning of the 3rd of October. Leyden was relieved.

THE FLEET REACHES THE CITY.

The quays were lined with the famishing population, as the fleet rowed through the canals, every human being who could stand coming forth to greet the preservers of the city. Bread was thrown from every vessel among the crowd. The poor creatures, who, for two months had tasted no wholesome human food, and who had literally been living within the jaws of death, snatched eagerly the blessed gift, at last too liberally bestowed. Many choked themselves to death, in the greediness with which they devoured their bread; others became ill with the effects of plenty thus suddenly succeeding starvation;—but these were isolated cases, a repetition of which was prevented. The Admiral, stepping ashore, was welcomed by the magistracy, and a solemn procession was immediately formed. Magistrates and citizens, wild Zealanders, emaciated burgher guards,

sailors, soldiers, women, children,—nearly every living person within the walls, all repaired without delay to the great church, stout Admiral Boisot leading the way. The starving and heroic city, which had been so firm in its resistance to an earthly king, now bent itself in humble gratitude before the King of kings. After prayers, the whole vast congregation joined in the thanksgiving hymn. Thousands of voices raised the song, but few were able to carry it to its conclusion, for the universal emotion, deepened by the music, became too full for utterance. The hymn was abruptly suspended, while the multitude wept like children. The scene of honest pathos terminated, the necessary measures for distributing the food and relieving the sick were taken by the magistracy.

The Vesper Hour*

(Baccalaureate Sermon Delivered to the C. L. S. C. Class of 1908, Chautauqua, N. Y., August 16, 1908.)

By Chancellor John H. Vincent

GOD has revealed himself to humanity in nature, in biography, in history, in that unique personality, Jesus Christ, in the preparatory civilizations that paved the way for him, and finally, as a key to all the rest in that great body of literature,—historic, poetic, prophetic,—clearly, spiritually, subjectively—the holy Bible.

God also now reveals himself in the personal life through the direct and unconscious influence of the believer, in the acts of the saints creating as they do the garb of personal character,—"fine linen, bright and pure, the righteous acts of the saints." Here is high art, the genius of goodness filling the face with radiance and the conduct with righteous acts. This is the true salvation which is working itself out in every day goodness, in the "beauty of holiness."

In this life of personal loveliness the main point is not the assurance of personal safety nor is it in "being happy."

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*The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent, continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

It is in an energy of life that is wholly self-forgetting. There is the life of the whirlpool which draws everything unto itself,—there is the life of the fountain which gives everything that it has as a blessing to others. It is a life of service full of the "acts" of sympathy illustrated by Him who "went about doing good."

This is the secret of a true life; human affection working itself out in deeds of service—acts that flow from a warm heart and that tell in permanent influence and power. When in the physical world we are under clouds and darkness, no sun in sight, we nevertheless feel warm and comfortable because the sun really is, although unseen, and in his place beyond the clouds is radiant and potent, holding us to our solar center and giving us light and heat. So under all systems of belief genuine souls are held by Christ even though they may never have heard his name pronounced. We may not yet be sound in theology but if we be sound in motive, genuine in spirit, and diligent in endeavor in due time we shall be established in a true theology. We may not at first understand the solar system but even then we may enjoy and be blessed by the sunlight.

But it is important that we should think of Christ and not of self. Therefore we say: Don't make or think too much of yourself; think of God and forget yourself. Never mind your moods of feeling. Let your aspirations and your motives alone as much as possible. The less you think about them as an end the more you will have of the joy and strength of life and the better you will serve men. Aim to be, for character is at the root of everything; but aim to be not for the sake of being but for the sake of doing—of serving. Be that you may bless. Remember that the shortest route to insanity and abnormality is too great solicitude about self, and about self in the future. The highest mission of the church is not safety for the future but health—soundness, sanity in the present, out of which spring the "righteous acts of the saints." The normal Christian life is, of course, personal, but it is so for the sake of service. A man

clothes himself with apparatus for diving but he does not thus array himself for the sake of good looks nor for personal comfort. It is that he may rescue others from danger or by his researches in the deep sea contribute to science and the safety of society. The church exists not to weave white robes for saints or twine crowns into form but to help—to make good citizens, useful neighbors, secure the enactment of wholesome laws, good government, a higher civilization that individuals may live not for themselves but for society—not for the new Jerusalem yonder in some remote star but the new Jerusalem coming down from heaven to establish itself on earth.

The love of the beautiful is a divinely inspired passion but it is the beautiful in every-day life whether in kitchen or cathedral. I do covet high art in church life—not through ecclesiastical art based on medieval theories of church, conformities to out-worn and petrified liturgies, but the art of the present day with today's sunshine, with the freshness of the wind of today out of the north, the church building a place of cleanliness, neatness, beauty, simplicity, with suggestions of today's civilization and with adaptation to today's demands. I covet for the church today the noble art of worship in which are silence, thoughtfulness, reverence, a thirst for truth and self-sacrificing devotion to all forms of philanthropy. My ideal church service embraces the dignity and propriety of the Episcopalian, the ardor of the Methodist, and the charming self-control and silence of the Quaker.

It is not culture but character that counts. It is not graceful manners but the grace-full spirit. It is not familiarity with wide ranges of literature but fellowship with the Spirit of all wisdom. It is not merely tact and good taste in social fellowship but unselfish love, and patience that has a smile to add to its submission and endurance. What is most beautiful is designed to be most useful. The graces of personal character are means of grace to others. There is a beauty of holiness. There are artists in the realm of grace—dealing not with brush and pigments, not with the

tools of architects and builders nor with the chisel and polish of the sculptor—but adding day after day faith, virtue, knowledge, temperance, patience, godliness, brotherly kindness, charity. There is a fine embroidery of contentment and self-forgetfulness and genuine love for folks. Happy is the home and noble is the social circle where such dress and drapery are found. Very soon in such homes voices that before were harsh become soft and sweet. Love never talks of things that make for confusion and discord. And its kitchen-tones are always full of music. To be a genuine lady in the kitchen is the very perfection of Christian art. It reminds one of Bethany and Mary and Martha and the Master. The woman who by her servants is both respected and beloved is entitled to a lofty place in truly Christian society.

As every drop of water is created and controlled by the mysterious force we call gravitation, as the atmosphere penetrates and permeates it as delicately and perfectly as though it were the only form of matter for the benefit of which the atmosphere existed, as the sun applying the most delicate ray of its light to that tiny globule of water fills it with beauty and glory as though the sun existed for the sole purpose of making that little thing a beauty and a glory in the eyes of men so we are justified in accepting the words of Holy Writ concerning the significance and value of a single human life. The sparrow that falls does not fall beyond or without the Heavenly Father's knowledge and care. He counts the hairs of the head. He makes all the tiny things that men need the microscope to discover. With Him nothing is so insignificant as to be cast carelessly aside. He cares for the minute, the unimportant, the microscopic, even "the balancings of the clouds are the wondrous workings of Him who is perfect in knowledge." The man is to be congratulated who carries this faith into his own everyday life. God is our Father. He knoweth our frame, our temperament, our weak points, our antecedents, our limitations, the strain of bad blood in us, the play of circum-

stances before we know enough to avoid or resist. He knows the circumstances of long ago out of which the conditions of today have come. And He gives us a word of Holy Writ—a whole chapter of words as these,—"Casting all your care on God for He careth for you;" "Happy is he that hath the God of Jacob for his help, whose hope is in the Lord his God." It is a great thing, a wonderful thing—this fact of an ever-active, ever-loving brother-like Father of our spirits who knows us all—each one of us, the weakest, the most simple, the most reckless and foolish and obdurate of us all, and who loves and longs to have us come back to Him with penitence for the past and a brave purpose for the future.

In the ideal life nothing is so slight or trifling that we can refuse to give it attention. The insignificant, if it be by God's appointment, is stupendous. The tiny dewdrop really represents the mighty force of gravitation and reflects the glory of the sun. Do not despise the one tiny drop of dew. God does not. His great servants, gravitation and the sun, respect, conserve, and glorify a drop of dew. When it disappears it is not destroyed. It is somewhere again sometime to tremble and glow and bless. You dare not despise anything. You dare not neglect anything. Recognize the immensity and the relation of the Master to these immensities and whoever, whatever you are, remember you are face to face with the fact and force of Omnipotent energy, the energy of love. The slightest action sustains widest relationships. The immensities are made up of the infinitesimals. And every little thing has its place and mission. The thorn in the flesh—the annoyance, hindrances, vexations of life by which what we call "good" seems to be reduced, and what we account "enjoyment" is diminished—all have a beneficent mission. Earth may crowd you with care but Heaven will crown you with grace and glory. How many of the factors that make for personality we have had no share in creating or introducing into our lives. Pre-natal influences, parental qualities imparted to us from a long

line of ancestors; carelessness of ignorant or silly women during those delicate and important months of the new life that "throbs beneath the mother's heart;" a false and often a fatal idea of delicacy and propriety; the power of example; the vast power of "unconscious influence" during the early years of life; the earliest educative processes of nursery and fireside; the first intimate associates; the pictures on the wall, the tones of voice in habitual intercourse; the sharpness of uncontrolled temper; the effects of a variable policy in government of the poor child, never able to determine which it is safest to do. How important that at home we should find always "the righteous acts of the saints" arraying personalities and draping walls with "fine linen bright and pure."

There is a great deal of beauty that is, as the old phrase puts it "only skin deep." It is selfishness in silken robes. It is leprosy powdered, or painted in the colors of health. Decorative art may make very cheap paper look like satin. And there are tricks of politeness and courtesy among very unreal people deceiving the very elect—although not for long. Alas for the home they weaken and corrupt!

I covet for the church noble art in her services with a recognition not so much of yesterday's ideals and customs as of tomorrow's need and today's opportunity—a service full of reverence, beauty, and simplicity in harmony with the thought of the age we live in. I covet for the church the high ideals of art in personal character, as needed by our modern times. In all this ideal life of the church the divine leading does not involve freedom from exposure to pain and affliction. Even when God's hand holds ours it does not render impossible the "thorn in the flesh," the "decay" of "the outward man" and being "weighed down exceedingly beyond our power" as Paul says he was. Physicians must visit professionally the homes of godly men and women. And all the undertakers' bills are not sent exclusively to the homes of sinners. Learn the high art of submission to and serenity under the Divine discipline. Take what He sends

with a smile and you will see through the veil that for once hides his face—a smile in response;—the smile of a mother who knows that the requirement so hard just now to bear means for tomorrow perfect acquiescence, and the next day rapture. Do not form but avoid the habit of criticism. Think of folks with good will. Take for granted that other people are as honest and as full of good will as you yourself are. Do not be a hornet. Be a busy bee but don't sting. Scatter words of charity and smiles of good will everywhere and every day. A soft answer may hush into silence every wild wave of wrath and this will be your way of following Christ whose "Peace be still" on the tumultuous Galilee is today one of the sweetest memories of his life.

Dear members of the Class of 1908, learn to think of God as the great artist who is ingenious and persistent in his endeavors to adorn you, each and all with "the beauty of holiness," "the meek and quiet spirit," "the righteous acts of saints," that "fine linen bright and pure." "He careth for you" at least as much as the sun that glorifies a dewdrop and then takes it up into the infinite to be forever a part of this great universe. Are you under the limitations of God's loving providence? Do you sometimes regret that you are not physically beautiful? Does your awkwardness by your sad self-consciousness now and then make you even more awkward? Are you over-sensitive through the very delicacy of your nervous organization? Was reputation your idol and has God allowed it to be shattered or at least shadowed? And is there a basis, even a slight basis of fact as a foundation for an ungenerous rumor? Are you ambitious for yourself or your best beloved and are there barriers in the way of its gratification? Has an insidious disease in yourself or in one you love better than you love self given throb or ache or started a fear you cannot quiet? Does some other "thorn in the flesh," or hint of disaster in the home or business life give you anxiety? Let me remind you that God careth for you. He cares for a sparrow. He puts his wisdom and power and glory into a dewdrop. No atom of mat-

ter that He made shall ever be lost. His providence never ceases. His love never faileth. His purposes are lofty and royal. He would array you in "fine linen bright and pure." He would fill your life with righteous deeds and make some soul sing a psalm of praise in heaven because of the divine grace He put into your soul.

Come to Him. Open your soul to Him and say, "Oh God possess me!" Rest in Him. Wait for Him. Serve Him. And do all this—Now !

Famous European Short Stories

The Three Hermits*

By Leo Tolstoy.

"And in praying use not vain repetitions as the Gentiles do: for they think that they shall be heard for their much speaking. Be not therefore like unto them: for your Father knoweth what things ye have need of, before ye ask Him."—*Matt.* vi, 7, 8.

A BISHOP was sailing from Archangel to the Solovétsk Monastery; and on the same vessel were a number of pilgrims on their way to visit the shrines at that place. The voyage was a smooth one. The wind favorable, and the weather fair. The pilgrims lay on deck, eating, or sat in groups talking to one another. The Bishop, too, came on deck, and as he was pacing up and down, he noticed a group of men standing near the prow and listening to a fisherman, who was pointing to the sea and telling them something. The Bishop stopped, and looked in the direction in which the man was pointing. He could see nothing, however, but the sea glistening in the sunshine. He drew nearer to listen, but when the man saw him, he took off his cap and was silent. The rest of the people also took off their caps, and bowed.

"Do not let me disturb you, friends," said the Bishop.

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*An old legend current in the Volga district. From "Folk-Tales Retold." Written by Tolstoy in 1886.

"I came to hear what this good man was saying."

"The fisherman was telling us about the hermits," replied one, a tradesman, rather bolder than the rest.

"What hermits?" asked the Bishop, going to the side of the vessel and seating himself on a box. "Tell me about them. I should like to hear. What were you pointing at?"

"Why, that little island you can just see over there," answered the man, pointing to a spot ahead and a little to the right. "That is the island where the hermits live for the salvation of their souls."

"Where is the island?" asked the Bishop. "I see nothing."

"There in the distance, if you will please look along my hand. Do you see that little cloud? Below it, and a bit to the left, there is just a faint streak. That is the island."

The Bishop looked carefully, but his unaccustomed eyes could make out nothing but the water shimmering in the sun.

"I cannot see it," he said. "But who are the hermits that live there?"

"They are holy men," answered the fisherman. "I had long heard tell of them, but never chanced to see them myself till the year before last."

And the fisherman related how once, when he was out fishing, he had been stranded at night upon that island, not knowing where he was. In the morning, as he wandered about the island, he came across an earth hut, and met an old man standing near it. Presently two others came out, and after having fed him, and dried his things, they helped him mend his boat.

"And what are they like?" asked the Bishop.

"One is a small man and his back is bent. He wears a priest's cassock and is very old; he must be more than a hundred, I should say. He is so old that the white of his beard is taking a greenish tinge, but he is always smiling, and his face is as bright as an angel's from heaven. The second is taller, but he also is very old. He wears a tattered,

peasant coat. His beard is broad, and of a yellowish grey color. He is a strong man. Before I had time to help him, he turned my boat over as if it were only a pail. He too, is kindly and cheerful. The third is tall, and has a beard as white as snow and reaching to his knees. He is stern with over-hanging eyebrows; and he wears nothing but a mat tied round his waist."

"And did they speak to you?" asked the Bishop.

"For the most part they did everything in silence, and spoke but little even to one another. One of them would just give a glance, and the others would understand him. I asked the tallest whether they had lived there long. He frowned, and muttered something as if he was angry; but the oldest one took his hand and smiled, and then the tall one was quiet. The oldest one only said: 'Have mercy upon us,' and smiled."

While the fisherman was talking, the ship had drawn nearer to the island.

"There, now you can see it plainly, if your Grace will please to look," said the tradesman, pointing with his hand.

The Bishop looked, and now he really saw a dark streak —which was the island. Having looked at it a while, he left the prow of the vessel, and going to the stern, asked the helmsman:

"What island is that?"

"That one," replied the man, "has no name. There are many such in this sea."

"Is it true that there are hermits who live there for the salvation of their souls?"

"So it is said, your Grace, but I don't know if it's true. Fishermen say they have seen them; but of course they may only be spinning yarns."

"I should like to land on the island and see these men," said the Bishop. "How could I manage it?"

"The ship cannot get close to the island," replied the helmsman, "but you might be rowed there in a boat. You had better speak to the captain."

The captain was sent for and came.

"I should like to see these hermits," said the Bishop. "Could I not be rowed ashore?"

The captain tried to dissuade him.

"Of course it could be done," said he, "but we should lose much time. And if I might venture to say so to your Grace, the old men are not worth your pains. I have heard say that they are foolish old fellows, who understand nothing, and never speak a word, any more than the fish in the sea."

"I wish to see them," said the Bishop, "and I will pay you for your trouble and loss of time. Please let me have a boat."

There was no help for it; so the order was given. The sailors trimmed the sails, the steersman put up the helm, and the ship's course was set for the island. A chair was placed at the prow for the Bishop, and he sat there, looking ahead. The passengers all collected at the prow, and gazed at the island. Those who had the sharpest eyes could presently make out the rocks on it, and then a mud hut was seen. At last one man saw the hermits themselves. The captain brought a telescope and, after looking through it, handed it to the Bishop.

"It's right enough. There are three men standing on the shore. There, a little to the right of that big rock."

The Bishop took the telescope, got it into position, and he saw the three men: a tall one, a shorter one, and one very small and bent, standing on the shore and holding each other by the hand.

The captain turned to the Bishop.

"The vessel can get no nearer in than this, your Grace. If you wish to go ashore, we must ask you to go in the boat, while we anchor here."

The cable was quickly let out, the anchor cast, and the sails furled. There was a jerk, and the vessel shook. Then a boat having been lowered, the oarsmen jumped in, and the Bishop descended the ladder and took his seat. The

men pulled at their oars, and the boat moved rapidly towards the island. When they came within a stone's throw, they saw three old men: a tall one with only a mat tied round his waist; a shorter one in a tattered peasant coat, and a very old one bent with age and wearing an old cassock—all three standing hand in hand.

The oarsmen pulled in to the shore, and held on with the boathook while the Bishop got out.

The old men bowed to him, and he gave them his benediction, at which they bowed still lower. Then the Bishop began to speak to them.

"I have heard," he said, "that you, godly men, live here saving your own souls, and praying to our Lord Christ for your fellow men. I, an unworthy servant of Christ, am called, by God's mercy, to keep and teach His flock. I wished to see you, servants of God, and to do what I can to teach you, also."

The old men looked at each other smiling, but remained silent.

"Tell me," said the Bishop, "what you are doing to save your souls, and how you serve God on this island."

The second hermit sighed, and looked at the oldest, the very ancient one. The latter smiled and said:

"We do not know how to serve God. We only serve and support ourselves, servant of God."

"But how do you pray to God?" asked the Bishop.

"We pray in this way," replied the hermit. "Three are ye, three are we, have mercy upon us."

And when the old man said this, all three raised their eyes to heaven, and repeated:

"Three are ye, three are we, have mercy upon us!"

The Bishop smiled.

"You have evidently heard something about the Holy Trinity," said he. "But you do not pray aright. You have won my affection, godly men. I see you wish to please the Lord, but you do not know how to serve Him. That is not the way to pray; but listen to me, and I will teach you.

I will teach you, not a way of my own, but the way in which God in the Holy Scriptures has commanded all men to pray to Him."

And the Bishop began explaining to the hermits how God had revealed Himself to men; telling them of God the Father, and God the Son, and God the Holy Ghost.

"God the Son came down on earth," said he, "to save men, and this is how He taught us all to pray. Listen, and repeat after me: 'Our Father.'"

And the first old man repeated after him, "Our Father," and the second said, "Our Father," and the third said, "Our Father."

"Which art in Heaven," continued the Bishop.

The first hermit repeated, "Which art in heaven," but the second blundered over the words, and the tall hermit could not say them properly. His hair had grown over his mouth so that he could not speak plainly. The very old hermit, having no teeth, also mumbled indistinctly.

The Bishop repeated the words again, and the old men repeated them after him. The Bishop sat down on a stone, and the old men stood before him, watching his mouth, and repeating the words as he uttered them. And all day long the Bishop labored, saying a word twenty, thirty, a hundred times over, and the old men repeated it after him. They blundered, and he corrected them, and made them begin again.

The Bishop did not leave off till he had taught them the whole of the Lord's prayer so that they could not only repeat it after him, but could say it by themselves. The middle one was the first to know it, and to repeat the whole of it alone. The Bishop made him say it again and again, and at last the others could say it too.

It was getting dark, and the moon was appearing over the water, before the Bishop rose to return to the vessel. When he took leave of the old men, they all bowed down to the ground before him. He raised them, and kissed each of them, telling them to pray as he had taught them.

Then he got into the boat and returned to the ship.

And as he sat in the boat and was rowed to the ship he could hear the three voices of the hermits loudly repeating the Lord's prayer. As the boat drew near the vessel their voices could no longer be heard, but they could still be seen in the moonlight, standing as he had left them on the shore, the shortest in the middle, the tallest on the right, the middle one on the left. As soon as the Bishop had reached the vessel and got on board, the anchor was weighed and the sails unfurled. The wind filled them, and the ship sailed away, and the Bishop took a seat in the stern and watched the island they had left. For a time he could still see the hermits, but presently they disappeared from sight, though the island was still visible. At last it too vanished, and only the sea was to be seen, rippling in the moonlight.

The pilgrims lay down to sleep, and all was quiet on deck. The Bishop did not wish to sleep, but sat alone at the stern, gazing at the sea where the island was no longer visible, and thinking of the good old men. He thought how pleased they had been to learn the Lord's prayer; and he thanked God for having sent him to teach and help such godly men.

So the Bishop sat, thinking, and gazing at the sea where the island had disappeared. And the moonlight flickered before his eyes, sparkling, now here, now there, upon the waves. Suddenly he saw something white shining on the bright path which the moon cast across the sea. Was it a seagull, or the little gleaming sail of some small boat? The Bishop fixed his eyes on it, wondering.

"It must be a boat sailing after us," thought he, "but it is overtaking us very rapidly. It was far, far away a minute ago, but now it is much nearer. It cannot be a boat, for I can see no sail; but whatever it may be, it is following us, and catching us up."

And he could not make out what it was. Not a boat, nor a bird, nor a fish! It was too large for a man, and

besides a man could not be out there in the midst of the sea. The Bishop rose, and said to the helmsman:

"Look there, what is that, my friend? What is it?" the Bishop repeated, though he could now see plainly what it was—the three hermits running upon the water, all gleaming white, their grey beards shining, and approaching the ship as quickly as though it were not moving.

The steersman looked, and let go the helm in terror.

"Oh Lord! The hermits are running after us on the water as though it were dry land!"

The passengers hearing him, jumped up, and crowded to the stern. They saw the hermits coming along hand in hand, and the two outer ones beckoning the ship to stop. All three were gliding along upon the water without moving their feet. Before the ship could be stopped, the hermits had reached it, and raising their heads, all three as with one voice, began to say:

"We have forgotten your teaching, servant of God. As long as we kept repeating it we remembered, but when we stopped saying it for a time, a word dropped out, and now it has all gone to pieces. We can remember nothing of it. Teach us again."

The Bishop crossed himself, and leaning over the ship's side, said:

"Your own prayer will reach the Lord, men of God. It is not for me to teach you. Pray for us sinners."

And the Bishop bowed low before the old men; and they turned and went back across the sea. And a light shone until daybreak on the spot where they were lost to sight.

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THE CLASS OF 1908 AT CHAUTAUQUA.

Through four years of reading and five years of class gatherings at Chautauqua, the members of the C. L. S. C. Class of 1908 steadily approached the consummation at Chautauqua of their "college outlook." There were more than a hundred who came and they were men and women of varied experiences and opportunities, typical of the larger number of their class in the outside world who could not be with them to celebrate Recognition Day. Much thought and labor had been given to plans for this graduating day by the committees who had met in previous years and early in the season the indefatigable class secretary, Miss S. E. Ford, called the members together and in the absence of Professor Schmucker, Mr. Henry W. Sage assumed the responsibilities of presiding officer. Much was made of the social life of the Class. Committees called upon members as soon as they reached Chautauqua, readers recounted their four years' experiences to their fellow classmates, and each member was eager to share in all class undertakings. The beautiful Tennyson banner secured through the help of Professor and Mrs. Schmucker, was unveiled, and at this time, one of the older members, Mr. Elias B. Thompson, recited for the class their poem, "Ulysses." It was discovered that certain

St. Paul's Grove and the Hall of Philosophy.

Representatives of the C. L. S. C. Class of 1908 "Passing the Arches" at Chautauqua.

Flower Girls on Recognition Day, 1908.

A Group of C. L. S. C. Graduates of 1908 on the steps of the Hall of Philosophy.

Rallying Day Reception in the Hall of Philosophy.

other members of the class had also committed the poem to memory and these were honored by their admiring classmates with the Chautauqua salute! A very acceptable addition to the furnishings of the 1908 Class room was the fine portrait of Tennyson by the famous etcher, M. Rajon, which was presented to the class by Miss Una Jones of Stittville, New York. Miss Jones had followed many an elusive clue in pursuit of a suitable portrait and the members of the class repeatedly expressed their appreciation of this work of art. At one of the '08 "at homes," Chancellor Vincent gave them words of congratulation and counsel, inspired as he always is by a C. L. S. C. graduating class. His theme was the old one which he makes ever new, that the mature mind has powers of interpretation unknown to youth and that the bodily life here even of threescore years and ten marks but the dawn of the future growth of the spirit. Miss Spencer, the authority of the "Studies in American Painting" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, chanced also to be present and gave a suggestive talk on the possibilities of art in daily life. Baccalaureate Sunday brought the never to be forgotten sermon by the Chancellor and in the evening the Class Vigil in the Hall in the Grove under the Athenian Watch Fires. The service comes to each class with new meaning. Again the class poem was read, this time by Dr. Schmucker, Mr. Sage offered a prayer, and Dr. Hurlbut closed the Vigil with the beautiful lines from Morte D'Arthur, a reminder that "the old order changeth."

Preparations for Recognition Day found many committees at work. The letters for the class motto and name were prepared and the unexpected contribution of a thousand paper roses for decorations was revealed to the delighted surprise of the class. This very ingenious plan had been worked out during the year by Miss Florence E. Harpham who had arranged to have the roses made by some friendly workers during the winter. The committees were thus enabled to use their 1908 emblem with great

freedom. The class took pride in going through the gate on Recognition Day with its quota toward Alumni Hall entirely paid and what was quite unusual, raised also a sufficient amount to cover the tablet placed in the Hall of Philosophy, and unveiled at the Recognition Exercises. The Recognition Address by President Henry Churchill King of Oberlin was a delightful experience to many readers who heard for the first time the author of one of their Chautauqua books. Dr. King's "Rational Living" they had studied and practiced during their four years of reading. The conferring of diplomas by the Chancellor took place in the afternoon when many friends of the graduates gathered to see the unique ceremony. The final rally of the class was at the Alumni banquet in the evening when song and story interspersed with class cheers in varied keys betokened the irrepressible spirits of the S. H. G.

The following letter of greeting from Dr. E. E. Hale, one of the C. L. S. C. Counselors, was read by Dr. Hurlbut:

Will you give my regards to the Tennyson Class on Recognition Day. It brings back to me the day when I received my degree as Master of Arts. Tennyson's poems, in the first American edition were just published. I quote the lines in my address which have since become so familiar—

"Through the shadow of the world, we sweep
into the wider Day
Better fifty years of Europe than
a cycle of Cathay."

That was in 1842—and the next fifty years made a fine object lesson.

Always yours,

EDWARD E. HALE.

1883—"THE VINCENT CLASS."

It was '83's turn to celebrate its twenty-fifth anniversary this year. The class though somewhat larger in its original enrollment than that of '82 seemed to draw from a more distant territory and its representation at Chautauqua has been comparatively small. But they are a band of choice spirits, these '83's, and their Class Cottage which they share with the '85's has always been a unique place where on reception night some original devices are quite certain to appear. At the anniversary meeting of the class on Rec-

ognition Day, letters were read from absent members, among them one from Col. B. P. Pepper of Memphis, Tenn., who said, "The old Class of '83 has a cordial place in my heart and I feel that the work done during the progress of our studies has been invaluable to me. I would not give up the memory and the results of it for any consideration. I feel that no movement in many decades has been a greater source of blessing to wide areas of our country." At the annual class reception on Tuesday night, Chancellor Vincent made a brief address of congratulation to the '83's, who responded with a skilfully worded but seemingly spontaneous cheer, so successfully had they learned to conjure with their name "Vincent." At the Recognition Day Exercises in the Hall of Philosophy the '83 tablet was the first of the class tablets to be dedicated this year.

THE VICENNIAL OF '88.

With the enthusiasm which characterizes Chautauqua graduate reunions, the 88's came up to their twentieth. Casting about for some novel way in which to commemorate their anniversary, a "vicennial breakfast" was proposed as being the most fitting time when the '88's and their guests might "invite their souls" ere the distractions of the day should begin. The result fully justified the expectations of the class. Alumni Hall for the first time echoed to the "sounds of revelry" in the early morning while just across the park the beautiful Aula Christi, shimmering in the morning light, lent its presence to the scene as the guests came and went. On another occasion the members of the class gathered to read letters of greeting from various members and the recent death of a prominent member of the class, Mr. Walton N. Ellis of Brooklyn, N. Y., was recorded. Mr. Ellis was at the time of his death supervisor of music in the Board of Education of Greater New York and earlier in his career director of music at Plymouth Church and assistant to Mr. Frank Damrosch in the People's Choral Society of Manhattan. For a number of years he directed the chorus at Chautauqua during the first half of the

session and gave himself enthusiastically to the work of the C. L. S. C. His cheery presence was recalled by many classmates.

The following letter from the Class President, Dr. A. E. Dunning, will be read with interest by many '88's and others who could not be present:

"My Dear Mrs. Teller:

"The Class of '88, numerous and strong, and many of them youthful in the early days have become few in number and bowed with the weight of years. Then my children were with me and none of them had even gone to college. Now my children and children-in-law are graduates of seven different colleges and universities and I have grandchildren around me. . . . If there are still a half dozen of the Plymouth Rock class with you, give each one my love. I said recently to a friend of mine: 'We are growing old.' 'Yes,' he said cheerfully, 'but it grows better every year.' If the surviving members of '88 can all say that, then we as a C. L. S. C. Class will continue to stand at the head of the procession on Recognition Day and say proudly 'Let us be seen by our deeds.'

"Affectionately yours,

"A. E. DUNNING."

THE C. L. S. C. AT CHAUTAUQUA.

Nature lent to Chautauqua her friendliest mood this year and the long summery days with occasional showers and only a touch of the intense heat made a season's record almost unparalleled in the annals of Chautauqua summers. The C. L. S. C. season was characterized by the usual activities, with perhaps a growing tendency toward social gatherings. Rallying Day brought all C. L. S. C. members and their friends together at the opening of the August program and the morning meeting with brief addresses introduced by President Vincent was full of suggestion. Professor Graham Taylor referred to the influence of Chautauqua as he had met it in many parts of the country; Miss Georgie L. Hopkins of the Lithia Springs Chautauqua, gave some glimpses of the work of that important gathering; Mr. Blichfeldt of the Extension Office at Chautauqua, contrasted with the field work the privileges of those who, to use the Scriptural phrase, "tarry at home with the stuff" during the year; Mr. Bray of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, related several incidents of his recent European trip which bore upon the

coming year's study of Modern Europe, and Miss Kimball summed up certain of the comments made by C. L. S. C. readers upon the course of the past year. Chancellor Vincent closed the hour by reminding his hearers that

"The best thing the C. L. S. C. can do is not to place on shelves books that have been read, nor to frame diplomas to which seals have been added, nor to give facility of speech in parlor circles, valuable as this may be. Its best service, he said, is in creating in the individual that mystic indefinable quality called atmosphere, which people feel when they approach us and which is the product of character at the root. The development of personal character through such study as it provides, tones up the individual, enabling him to be genuine and his true self. This he called the *sanctum sanctorum* of the C. L. S. C."

In the afternoon the usual Rallying Day Reception was held in the Hall of Philosophy where different sections of the country were indicated by gay colored banners and characteristic decorations. These, against a background of green boughs massed between the columns made an effective setting for the various groups who received their friends in the fashion of the South, or the West, or New England, or elsewhere. The "Wide, Wide World" booth gave the C. L. S. C. an opportunity to welcome many visiting missionaries who, whether actual members or not, were looked upon as representative of the C. L. S. C. membership in foreign lands.

Throughout the season C. L. S. C. Round Tables brought frequently to notice the attractive features of the coming Modern European Year. Professor Judd of Yale University, spoke on Student Life in Germany, Dr. Zick of New York, on German Social Customs, Fraulein Rau of Oberlin, on Types of German Cities, President Vincent on the C. L. S. C. book, "Foundations of Modern Europe," President Moffatt of Washington and Jefferson College, on The Church in France, and Miss Meddie Hamilton, representing four Western Chautauquas, on the work of those Assemblies. Many other features of the program bore constant reference to the subjects of next year's course. Readings in European literature by Mrs. Emily M. Bishop and Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker tended to awaken a widespread interest in the study of European masterpieces, and Profes-

sor C. F. Lavell, well known to Chautauqua readers, gave a fine series of lectures on Modern Europe.

THE NEW FRESHMAN CLASS.

Naturally the new C. L. S. C. Class of 1912 was stimulated by the prevailing atmosphere. The meetings of other classes created a sort of contagion and by Recognition Day when the pageant of graduation exercises seemed to put the finishing touches upon irresolution, the class had rolled up a large membership. Miss Hopkins, whose experience at other Chautauquas made her services invaluable in guiding the 1912s aright, kept "open house" most of the time on the C. L S. C. Veranda, answering the same questions over and over and giving beginners the benefit of her personal experience. By the end of the season the Class had enrolled over three hundred members, many of them intent upon organizing circles as soon as they should return home. The 1912s at an early stage in their career united upon a class name, "Shakespeare." Their motto and emblem proved a more difficult problem. At length the marigold won the day, its brilliant gold color and the fact that it can be secured almost everywhere, being distinctly appropriate qualities for a world poet. It was suggested by an allusion in one of Shakespeare's plays: "The marigold that goes to bed with the sun and with it rises weeping." The old favorite from Hamlet was selected for the Class motto: "To thine own self be true." A very effective temporary banner was borne aloft by the Class on Recognition day, a picture of Shakespeare being mounted on a white background with a bunch of marigold attached to the supporting arm of the banner. The Class elected Mr. Victor Rhodes of St. Louis, for President, and a system of Round Robin letters among members at Chautauqua was planned so that news of their progress might be given from time to time in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Every member who organizes a circle will be regarded by fellow 1912s as worthy of special honor. The names of the officers will be found on page 308 of this magazine and the Treasurer, Miss Douglas, especially requests that any new members who

would like to join one of the Round Robin groups send their addresses to her.

THE CLASS OF 1909.

The members of the Dante Class at Chautauqua, now become "seniors," showed themselves fully awake to their responsibilities. Under the genial leadership of their President, Rev. William Channing Brown, the members held frequent meetings. They discussed the readings of the past three years, and built up a strong class spirit. Final designs for the Class banner were submitted and the class voted to accept a very effective design which, while more expensive than they had at first considered, was such a beautiful work of art that they were unwilling to be satisfied with anything less. The grape-vine gave a rare opportunity for effective use in a design and the artist worked out a lovely harmony of green and gold and purple on a creamy white background. The members who have been at Chautauqua each summer during the past four years have enthusiastically contributed each year to the three Class funds,—the banner, Alumni Hall where the Class holds its gatherings, and the Hall of Philosophy which includes their tablet. Many members who have not been to Chautauqua will want the privilege of sharing in Class expenses and amounts from a dollar up, or down, may be sent to the Class Treasurer. Every member of 1909 is urged to plan to finish all reading this year on time and any who have fallen behind are assured that they can catch up with a little extra effort. The Dante Class looks forward to a very large attendance at Chautauqua next year and those who cannot go to any assembly count, nevertheless, in making 1909 a memorable Class.

PRICES OF BOOKS ON SWITZERLAND.

The following books announced in the August number to be read in connection with the Reading Journey Through Switzerland are given here again with prices. They were announced in two groups, one book to be selected from each group. This arrangement is not, however, obligatory. Two books may be selected from the same group if more feasible.

A Short History of Switzerland. K. Dändliker, $2.50.

The Story of Switzerland. R. Stead and Mrs. A. Hug. $1.50.

Swiss Life in Town and Country. Story. $1.20.
A Sovereign People. Henry D. Lloyd. $1.50 net.
For the second book any one of the following:
Scrambles Among the Alps. E. Whymper. $5.00.
Hours of Exercise in the Alps. J. Tyndall. $2.00.
The Playground of Europe. Leslie Stephen. $1.50.
Our Life in the Swiss Highlands. John Addington and M. A. Symonds. $2.50.

MAPS.

Readers are reminded of the very excellent little Pocket Maps of the Rand, McNally series for 25 cents each. The Netherlands is 14x21 inches, Europe 28x21. Outline maps to be filled in by readers can be secured for a few cents each. Address Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, New York.

CLASS NOTES.

On the last pages of this month's Round Table will be found a complete directory of the officers, name, emblem, and motto of each Class.

The Class of '82 voted at its last meeting to paint and repair Pioneer Hall before another season, also to have by another year a pennant with the name Pioneer on one side and on the other their class emblem and year 1882. Each member of the class everywhere was invited to earn a dollar for this purpose during the year and come prepared to tell how it was accomplished or send a letter about it to be read on "Class Family Evening" next season. The matter of an '82 standard, discussed last year, was left open for further report next season. It is hoped that the new barberry hedge around the fountain will in due time become a protection as it is now a thing of beauty. Eighty-four members enrolled for the season and enthusiasm was very marked.

Meetings of The Guild of the Seven Seals at Chautauqua this summer were well attended and interesting. The number of seals reported as on the diplomas of those present aggregated 542. One member reported 106; two over 50; and eight over 30. The special course on Browning as prepared by Mr. P. H. Boynton, was especially commended to Guild readers. The fee for the study pamphlet and memoranda is $1.00 and may be secured from the C. L. S. C. office.

The Class of '86, which celebrated its decennial by planting trees near Alumni Hall and its vicennial by a gift of $100 for beautifying the Aula Christi, is now planning a contribution of $100 to the Hall of Philosophy which includes the laying of their Class tablet. They hope to accomplish this by or before 1911, their 25th anniversary. At the last Class meeting for this year eleven members held a "tea" at Mrs. Chaney's home and at its conclusion gave in honor of their hostess and for the first time the '86 "yell" which had been formally adopted:

Rah, rah, rah!
We are *one* of the cliques.
We are *the* "Progressives,"
The Class of '86.

The Classes of '85, '05, and '96 were among those who dedicated

their tablets in the Hall of Philosophy this summer. The '96's placed on the margin of their's a brass tablet inscribed "Seaton Memorial" in remembrance of their Class President, Mr. John A. Seaton.

The decennial exercises of the Class of '98 were held in their Class room on August 17. Greetings were extended by Mr. Z. L. White, President of the Class of '90, and Miss Irene I. F. Roach, Secretary of the Class of 1906, these two classes being fellow room mates of '98. Chancellor Vincent was also invited to be present and received from the Class a gift of forty dollars for the Aula Christi. His response showed how deeply he feels the importance of the Aula Christi in the future life of Chautauqua and his appreciation of the efforts of the C. L. S. C. members to make the realization of his dream complete.

The members of the Class of 1910, the "Gladstone" Class, received from their Secretary, Miss Harris, who is sojourning in Europe, a fine reproduction of the painting of Gladstone, by John Everett Millais, which hangs in the National Portrait Gallery in London.

The Class of 1911 postponed the selection of its motto and emblem until this year. Its name as selected last year is Longfellow. The motto chosen is "Act, act in the living present," and the emblem, the chestnut. The latter is closely associated with Longfellow, and is a tree that grows very widely. Its foliage is exceptionally beautiful. The design of the new Class banner is to be a full length figure of the young Hiawatha, the hero of Longfellow's great epic.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR NOVEMBER.

FIRST WEEK—OCTOBER 29-NOVEMBER 5.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapters IV. and V. Napoleon. Parts I. and II.

SECOND WEEK—NOV. 5-12.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Friendship of Nations, Part II. Danger Points of Conflict Around the Globe.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter VI. Napoleon. Part III.

THIRD WEEK—NOV. 12-19.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Dutch Art and Artists." Chapter II. Rembrandt.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter VII. Napoleon. Part IV.

FOURTH WEEK—NOV. 19-26.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "A Reading Journey in the Hollow Land." Chapter II. Characteristics of the Hollow-Land.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Paper: Sketch of Napoleon's life up to the time of his Nile expedition.
2. Paper: Josephine Beauharnais. (See lives of Napoleon).
3. Review with summary of chief points in Chapter on Napoleon, Part I.
4. Brief Oral Reports: Striking qualities of Richlieu, Kaunitz, and

Loyola. Conditions in France which preceded the coming of Henry IV.; In England of Cromwell. (These reports might be given in connection with the review of the Chapter).

5. Roll Call: Answers to the question, What three important facts have most impressed you in reading these first two chapters?

SECOND WEEK.

1. Discussion of traits of the Kaiser as given in the September and October CHAUTAUQUANS.
2. Review with summary of article on Danger Points around the Globe.
3. Paper: The recent trouble between Italy and Turkey. (See current magazines and weeklies.)
4. Roll Call: Items of current interest relative to the Danger Points around the Globe.
5. Review with summary of chapter on Napoleon, Part III.
6. Answers to the question,—Can you find any parallel between the relations of the different countries in Napoleon's time and international relations today? A different country might be assigned to each of several members to consider and report upon.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Review of chapter on Napoleon, Part IV.
2. Character Sketch: Charles V. (See histories, encyclopedias, etc.)
3. Reading: Selections from articles entitled "Strange Lineage of a Royal Baby," *Cosmopolitan* 43:465, September, 1907.
4. Oral Reports: Personal traits of William of Orange; the situation which Europe presented in his day; his qualities as a statesman. (See all available histories, biographies, Library Shelf in September CHAUTAUQUAN, etc.)
5. Reading: Selection from the Siege of Leyden. (See Library Shelf in this magazine.)
6. Paper: Rembrandt. (See bibliography following the article, also magazine reference).
7. Study of the article on Rembrandt. Each member should be assigned one of the pictures described by Mr. Zug and point out how it illustrates the artist's characteristics. There is a monograph on Rembrandt in the Masters in Art Series containing ten fine illustrations and much interesting and valuable comment. Many good pictures can be found in old magazines and it will be helpful to study pictures not described by Mr. Zug and see how far the reader can apply his suggestions.

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Paper: "The Fight with the Waters" in Holland. (See a very interesting chapter with this title in "Holland and the Hollanders" by Meldrum. If this book is not available look up articles and encyclopedia references on Holland.)
2. Roll Call: Answered by giving characteristics of the eleven provinces. (See any available book, encyclopedias, etc. In "Holland Described by Great Writers" by Singleton, there is a chapter on The Dutch Race.)
3. Paper: "Father Cats." (See Warner Library of the World's Best Literature, encyclopedias, etc.)

4. Review and Discussion of Essay by Austin Dobson on Jacob Cats with study of the illustrations.
5. Pronunciation Match on Dutch proper names.

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special programs for Graduate Circles and Clubs specializing upon the two Dutch series. (A copy of Baedecker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs).

FIRST WEEK.

1. Paper: "The Fight with the Waters." (See a very interesting chapter with this title in "Holland and the Hollanders" by Meldrum. A map showing relations of land and water would add much to the value of such a paper.)
2. Roll Call: Answered by giving characteristics of the eleven provinces. (See chapter on The Dutch Race in Holland Described by Great Writers, also encyclopedias and all available books).
3. Oral Report with reading of selections from "Holland and its People by De Amicis, chapter on Leyden; description of founding of University of Leyden and of the famous Siege. (See also article in *Harper's Magazine*, March, 1881.)
4. Paper: Maurice and John of Barneveld. (See Motley's works, Roger's "Story of Holland," and "Brave Little Holland" by Griffis.)
5. Study of the article on Frans Hals in the September CHAUTAUQUAN. Each member should be assigned one of the pictures described, showing how it illustrates the artist's characteristics. All other available pictures should be secured. The monograph on "Hals" in the "Masters in Art Series" contains ten fine half-tones and can be secured for twenty cents. Many good pictures can be found in old magazines.

SECOND WEEK.

1. Oral Reports: Some characteristics of the Gemunte; The Provincial States; The States General. (See "Holland and the Hollanders," Meldrum.)
2. Paper: Hugo Grotius.
3. Reading: Selection from the chapter entitled A Dutch Village in "Dutch Life in Town and Country."
4. Papar: Father Cats. (See Warner Library of the World's Best Literature, encyclopedias, etc.)
5. Review and Discussion of Essay by Austin Dobson on Jacob Cats with study of the illustrations.
6. Pronunciation match on Dutch proper names.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Paper: The Dutch East India Company. (See encyclopedias, histories, etc.)
2. Map review: Dutch possessions the world over.
3. Roll Call: Current news relating to Holland.
4. Paper: Life of Rembrandt. (See references at end of article in this magazine.)
5. Study of Article on Rembrandt in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. (See suggestions on Hals under program for first week.)

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Paper: Martin Harpertsson Tromp. (See "Naval Heroes of Holland" by J. A. Mets, encyclopedias and histories.)
2. Oral Report: The Dutch Army and Navy of Today. (See Dutch Life in Town and Country.)
3. Paper: De Ruyter and the Fight with England. (See histories, encyclopedias, and the Library Shelf in November CHAUTAUQUAN.)
4. Roll Call.
5. Reading: Selection from the chapter on Helder by De Amicis in "Holland and its People."

REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON NOVEMBER READINGS.

THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS, CHAPTER II. DANGER POINTS AROUND THE GLOBE.

1. What recent events illustrate the ease with which international complications may arise? 2. What seemed to be the chief danger points six years ago? 3. How has the situation changed in Korea and India? 4. What views have been held by several countries regarding the aggressiveness of Germany? 5. What means has Germany taken to dispel these ideas? 5. What statements were made by the German Ambassador? 7. How has Austro-Hungary seemed to menace the peace of Europe? 8. In what way has the unity of Austria been promoted? 9. Why has Hungary also seemed to accept the situation for the present? 10. What four danger points suggest at present possible trouble? 11. What leading diplomats have regarded the Macedonian problem with apprehension. 12. To what provinces is the name Macedonia now applied? 13. What causes keep them in a restless condition? 14. Why do the powers fear to give autonomy to Macedonia? 15. Why have recent attempts at reform proved unsuccessful? 16. What serious problems will arise if complete autonomy for Macedonia is attempted? 17. What ambitions has Italy in the Balkans? 18. How do her claims conflict with those of Austria? 19. Why does France lay claim to Morocco? 20. What blocks her way? 21. What two solutions of the situation are possible? 22. What view of Russo-Japanese conditions is given in the volume "The New Far East?" 23. How does Mr. Putnam-Weale in his "The Truce in the Far East" regard the situation? 24. What serious friction has recently arisen between Japan and China? 25. What charge against Japan is made by England and America? 26. Why must Russia construct a new line to Vladivostock? 27. What difficult problem is presented by the Aland Islands? 28. How are Germany and Russia "imprisoned empires?"

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW LAND.

Chapter II.

1. How does the Dutch government provide for the care of the dykes? 2. What is the character of the Dutch climate? 3. What are the chief Dutch coins? 4. What are the three chief governing bodies in Holland? 5. Describe briefly the nature of each. 6. What portfolios are held by the Cabinet ministers? 7. What is the "Raad Van Staat"? 8. How is the army secured? 9. What is the size of the army on a peace footing? 10. Give some significant figures from the national budget. 11. What are

the chief religious bodies in Holland? 12. Gives some figures showing the growth and present population of Holland. 13. Give some characteristics of the Dutch language. 14. Name the eleven provinces of the Netherlands. 15. Give the capital of each. 16. What relation has Luxemburg to Holland? 17. What are the most important Dutch colonies in the East and West Indies? 18. How much of a navy has Holland? 19. How have the natural boundaries of Holland on the land side affected its history? 20. What influence upon Dutch character has been exerted by the sea? 21. Compare the literary development of the Dutchman with that of his English and German neighbors.

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS.

1. What was the nature of Rembrandt's early education? 2. Under what teachers did he receive art instruction? 3. What does the date of the Anatomy lesson argue as to his industry? 4. How does Rembrandt's treatment of this subject compare with that of his predecessors? 5. What qualities of this work show that it belongs to the early part of his career? 6. What is meant by the "emancipated Rembrandt?" 7. What is the general character of "The Night Watch?" 8. Compare this picture with a similar one by Van der Helst. 9. Why was his treatment of this unsatisfactory to his sitters? 10. What does Frontentin mean by Rembrandt's two natures? 11. In what famous picture are these dual natures harmonized? 12. Describe his treatment of this subject. 13. Give some of the characteristics of his portraits, the Shipbuilder and his Wife, etc. 14. In what way does he suggest Giotto and Millet? 15. In what portraits are his deeper qualities shown? 16. Compare Rubens, Velasquez, and Rembrandt. 17. In what quality is he unique?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. Who was Harold Frederic? 2. What countries compose the Balkan States? 3. When did the island of Crete escape from Turkish control. 4. Where is the province of Adrianople? 5. Who is the present ruler of Morocco? 6. What are littoral powers?

1. Who was Hans Breitmann? 2. How does the Dutch navy compare in numbers with that of Germany and the United States? 3. Who was De Ruyter? 4. What is the motto of the Dutch Republic? 5. What was the Dutch East India Company? 6. Where are the most famous picture galleries in Holland?

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON OCTOBER READING.

1. A movement which in theory stands for extreme individualism and independence of authority in government except such as may arise spontaneously. It has been influential in bringing about revolts among the peasants and attempts at Constitutional reforms. 2. An Englishman, late London correspondent of the New York *Times* and Chicago *Tribune*. Studied in France, graduated at Harvard in 1881, student at Leipzig University in 1881-3. Inaugurated in 1882 agitation for preservation of Niagara Falls. For some years on staff of *Pall Mall Gazette* and London *Chronicle*. Traveled extensively. Author of "The Real Japan," "All the Russias," "People and Politics of the Far East," "The New East," etc. 3. A French army occupied the country in 1881 and established a French protectorate ostensibly with the purpose

of protecting Algeria from raids into her territory which was under French control. 4. Prince Bernard von Bülow. 5. James Brvce; Jean J. Jusserand; (to be appointed); Baron Rosen; E. Mayor des Planches; L. Hengelmuller von Hengervar. 6. M. Clemenceau; Armand Falliéres.

1. Founded by Philip the Good of Burgundy 1430 on occasion of marriage to Isabella of Portugal. Office of Grand Master passed to the House of Hapsburg in 1477 with acquisition of Burgundy. After death of Charles V the office exercised by Spanish kings. Austria claimed it after the Netheralnds were ceded to her in 1713. Dispute was undecided and the Order now exists separtely in both countries. The badge is a golden ram pendent from a jewel of elaborate design with the motto "Pretium laborum non vile." 2. The Duchy of Burgundy proper, a French fief lay between Champagne on the north, Franche-Comté and Savoy on the east, Dauphiné and Lyonnais on the south and Bourbonnais, Nivernais, and Orléanais on the west. Under Charles the Bold Franche-Comté and the Low Countries were added to it. 3. No imposition of taxes without consent of provincial estates. Cities not to be compelled to contribute to requests which they have not voted. No ruler shall begin an offensive or defensive war without consent of the estates. 4. The "Beggars" was a name assumed by a league of Protestant Flemish nobles organized to resist the encroachments of Philip. Their name and friar's dress gave them an appearance of humility which cloaked their audacity. 5. An organized slaughter of from 20,000 to 30,000 French Protestants in Paris and the Provinces instigated by Catherine dé Medici in 1572.

1. Sir Anthony Vandyke or Van Dyck. A famous Flemish painter of the seventeenth century. A pupil of Rubens. 2. Portraits of Charles I and his family and famous men of the time. A crucifixion at Mechlin. Elevation of the Cross at Courtrai. St. Augustine at Antwerp.

GLOSSARY.

In the following glossary will be found a number of words whose pronunciation cannot be indicated accurately by spelling. They are marked with a star. The capital N stands for the French nasal sound, and to get the correct idea of this sound and of the French eu, also the German ch and the umlaut, the reader is advised to ask some friend who has studied French or German to help him. Circles will find it worth while to secure a teacher who can give them a number of short drills on the principles of pronunciation of French and German. Many of the European proper names which one encounters have been so thoroughly anglicised that it is advisable to use only the English form. Other lists of proper names will appear from month to month. The Century Dictionary has been followed in the following list, the emphatic syllables being indicated by italics. Persons who find it inconvenient to secure a teacher may receive some help from the following suggestions:

The two little dots over a vowel in German, called the Umlaut, stand for an e that used to form part of the syllable. The sound of ü may be produced by keeping the lips in the position of saying the *oo* sound in *poor* and trying to utter the *ee* sound of *peer*.

A syllable marked thus *tre(r)me(r)*, etc., indicates that *e* should be given the sound which it has in *er* though the *r* should not be sounded.

Franche-Comté	froNsh-koN-tay (French nasal sound)
Artois	ahr tuah
Van Eyck	van-*ike*
Vasari	vah-*sah*-ree
Hobbema	*hob*-beh-mah
Van der Heyden	van-der-*hy*-den
Hondecoeter	*hon* deh-koo-ter
Van Miers	van-*me*-ris
Maes	mahs
Steen	stane
*Ter Borch	*tair* boorch (Ger. ch)
Liverens	*lee*-vens
Rembrandt	rem-brant
Hals	hahls
*Hooch	hoch (Ger. ch)
Hoogh	hoag
Wouverman	*wou*-ver-mahn
Van Ostade	van-*os*-tah-deh
Leys	lice
Van's Gravesande	vans-*grah*-veh-zahn-deh
*Tromentin	fro-moN-taN (Fr nasal sound)
Velasquez	vay-*lahs*-kayth
Correggio	kor-*red*-jo
Delfshaven	delfs-*hah*--ven
Mierevelt	*me*-reh-velt
Leyster	*lice* ter
Grooot	grote
Farnese	fahr-*may*-see
*Scheveningen	*schay*-ven-in-ghen (Gr. ch)
*Walcheren	*val*-cher-en (Ger. ch)
Gouda	*gow*-dah
Curaçao	koo-rah-*sah*-o
Celebes	*sel*-eh-behs
Schwerin	shvay-*reen*
Ruisdael	*roys*-dahl
Cuyp	koyp
Descater	day-kart
Pyrmont	*peer*-mont
Waldeck	*vahl*-deck
*Pichegru	*peesh*-gru (Ger. u)
Tromp	tromp
DeRuyter	de *roy*-ter
Oldenbarneveld	ol-den-*bar*-neh-velt
Jacqueline	zhahk-*leen*
Charlemagne	*char*-leh-mane
Frisian	*fris*-ian
Scheffer	*shef*-fer
Alma-Tadema	*ahl*-mah-*tah*-deh-mah
Stavoren	stah-*vo*-ren
Enkhuisen	enk-*hoi*-zen
Hoorn	horn
Broek	brook
Alkmaar	ahlk-*mahr*
Courtrai	koor-*tray*
Brabant	brah-*bant*

Drenthe	*dren*-teh
Friesland	*frees*-land
Guelderland	*gel*-der-land
Groningen	*gro*-ning-ghen
Overyssel	*o*-ver-ice-sel
Utrecht	*u*-trekt
Zuider Zee	*zy*-der-zee
Hainault	*hay*-no
Luxemburg	*luk*-sem-berg
Scheldt	skelt
Hertogenbosch	*hair*-to-ghen-bosch
Arnhem	*arn*-hem
Leeuwarden	*ler*-wahr-den (omit r sound)
*Maastricht	*mahs*-tricht (Ger. ch)
Zwolle	*zwol*-leh
*Verdun	vair-*duN* (Fr. nasal sound)
Bruges	*broo*-jez
Naarden	*nahr*-den
Breda	bray-*dah*

C. L. S. C. Class Directory

OFFICERS OF CLASS OF 1912.

President, Mr. Victor Rhodes, 5812 Cates Avenue, St. Louis, Mo.
Vice-President, Mrs. E. Robinson, Oil City, Pa.
Vice-President, Mrs C. W. Wright, Cave Spring, Georgia.
Vice-President, Mr. Harvey Brugger, Fremont, Ohio.
Treasurer, Miss Julia H. Douglas, 170 W. 59th St., New York City.
Secretary, Miss Grace L. Libby, 1922 East 81st street, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS OF 1911—"LONGFELLOW."

Motto: "Act, act in the living present." Emblem: The Chestnut.
President, Miss Mary E. Merington, 535 Massachusetts Ave., Buffalo, N. Y.
Vice-presidents, Mr. John Graham Brooks, Cambridge, Mass.; Mr. Richard Burton, University of Minnesota; Mr. C. E. Munson, Columbus, Ohio; Miss Louise Iliff, University Park, Colorado; Miss S. C. Martin, Elizabeth, N. J.; Mrs. Margaret Jackson, Gainesville, Florida.
Recording Secretary, Miss Florence Bonn, Baltimore, Md.
Secretary and Treasurer, Mrs. S. H. Bouton, Box 330, Rochester, N. Y.
Trustee, Mr. Albert B. Gemmer, Buffalo, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1910—"GLADSTONE."

Motto: "Life is a great and noble calling." Emblem: The Beach.
President, Mr. Arthur E. Bestor, Hyde Park, Chicago.
Vice-presidents, Mr. E. H. Blichfeldt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Miss Ada Van Stone Harris, Rochester, N. Y.; Rev. A. J. Terryberry, Southampton, Ont.; Mr. J. J. McWilliams, Cleveland, Ohio; Mr. S. L. Joshi, Bombay, India; Mr. A. W. Muse, Albany, Ga.; Mrs. Clifford A. Lanier, Montgomery, Ala.; Mrs. Joseph R. Patton, Atlanta, Illinois; Miss G. E. Reynolds, 268 W. 84th street, New York City.
Secretary, Miss Caroline Harris, 71 East 44th St., Chicago, Illinois.
Treasurer and Trustee, Mr. J. F. Rowley, 44 Collamer, East Cleveland, O.

CLASS OF 1909—"DANTE."

Motto: "On and fear not." Emblem: The Grape Vine.
President, Rev. Wm. Channing Brown, Littleton, Mass.
Vice-presidents, Mrs. Emily M. Bishop, New York City; Mrs. Bertha Kunz-Baker, Staten Island, N. Y.; Mr. Charles Currier Beale, Boston, Mass.; Miss Leonora Cox, Devonshire, Bermuda Islands; Mrs. R. A. Clemson, Tarpon Springs, Fla.; Mr. Alexander McKenzie, Washington, D. C.; Mrs. Clara Z. Moore, Cincinnati, O.; Mrs. S. A. Peavy, Great Valley, N. Y.; Mrs. E. T. Tobey, Memphis, Tenn.; Mr. John L. Wheat, Louisville, Ky.; Mrs. M. C. Weed, New York City, N. Y.; Miss Adele Brewer, Stockbridge, Mass.
Secretary, Mrs. Mary H. Waldron, Newburn, Tenn.
Treasurer, Mr. B. A. Allen, 1901 4th street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

GRADUATE CLASSES

CLASS OF 1908—"TENNYSON."

Motto: "To strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield." Emblem: The Red Rose.
Honorary President, Prof. S. C. Schmucker, West Chester, Pa.
President, Mrs. H. R. Hartley, Beaver, Pa.
Vice-presidents, Mr. Henry Ward Sage, Lawrence, Kan.; Mrs. C. H. Abbott, Winterpark, Fla.; Rev. S. F. Willis, New York City; Senorita Maria del Pilar Zamora, Manila, P. I.; George W. Downing, Binghamton, N. Y.; Mrs. T. H. Loller, Denison, O.; Mrs. Mary M. T. Runnels, Nipino, Cal.; Miss Millicent E. Stone, Toronto, Canada; Mrs. Joseph Burton Dibrell, Seguin, Tex.
Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Sarah E. Ford, 169 Court St., Binghamton, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1907—"GEORGE WASHINGTON."

Motto: "The aim of education is character." Emblem: The Scarlet Salvia.
President, Rev. C. A. Clark, Punxsutawney, Pa.
Vice-presidents, Dr. George D. Kellogg, Princeton, N. J.; Miss Rannie Webster, Oil City, Pa.; Mrs. J. C. B. Stivers, Cleveland, Ohio; Miss Margaret H. McPherson, Baltimore, Md.; Mrs. George Coblentz, Clarion, Pa.; Mr. James Weisel, Birmingham, Ala.
Secretary and Treasurer, Mrs. Albert Jordan, Punxsutawney, Pa.
Trustee, Mrs. George Coblentz, Clarion, Pa.

CLASS OF 1906—"JOHN RUSKIN."

Motto: "To love light and seek knowledge must be always right." Emblem: The Lily.
Honorary President, Bishop W. F. Oldham, India.
President, Mr. Carlton Hillyer, Augusta, Ga.
Honorary Member, Mr. Edward Howard Griggs, Montclair, N. J.
Vice-presidents, Mr. Clifford B. LePage, Mt. Vernon, N. Y.; James H. Windsor, Brocton, N Y.; Mr. Allen Freehafer, Dayton, O.; Mrs. C. H. Russell, Toledo, O.; Mrs. A. B. Allen, Oberlin, O.
Secretary-Treasurer and Trustee, Miss Irena I. F. Roach, 261 4th avenue, Lans. Station, Troy, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1905—"THE COSMOPOLITANS."

Class Poet: Robert Browning.
Motto: "A man's reach should exceed his grasp." Emblem: The Cosmos.
President, Dr. J. A. Babbitt, Haverford, Pa.
Vice-presidents, Mrs. Evelyn Snead Barnett, Louisville, Ky.; Mr. C. D. Firestone, Columbus, O.; Miss Mary K. Bissell, Cincinnati, O.; Dr. Russell M. Warren, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mr. George Wharton James, Pasadena, Cal.; Christina I. Tingling, London, England; Mrs. Richard Patten, Cardenas, Cuba; Miss Ailene V. Belden, New Orleans, La.; Miss Elizabeth L. Foote, New York City; Miss Anna M. Heilman, Greeley, Colo.; Miss Sadie Goss, Stony Point, Va.
Secretary and Treasurer, Miss Eleanor McCready, 614 Auburn Ave., Buffalo, N. Y.
Trustee, Mr. Edwin H. Sibley, Franklin, Pa.

CLASS OF 1904—"LEWIS MILLER."

Motto: "The horizon widens as we climb." Emblem: The Clematis.
Vice-presidents, Rev. J. M. Howard, Waynesburg, Pa.; Mrs. A. M. Parker, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. Katherine Chapman, Selma, Ala.; Miss Louise Nicholson, Arcola, Illinois; Mr. J. O. Peace, Louisville, Ky.; Lieut. J. D. Rogers, H. M. S. *Waterloo*, Australian Station; Mr. Scott Brown, South Bend, Indiana; Mr. Francis Wilson, New Rochelle, N. Y.; Mrs. Cozzeno, Cleveland, O.
Secretary, Miss J. S. Luqueer, 438 Classon Avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Treasurer, Miss Susie Parker, Brooklyn, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1903—"QUARTER-CENTURY" CLASS.

Motto: "What is excellent is permanent." Emblem: The Cornflower: Three ears of corn (red, white, and blue).
President, Mrs. Alice M. Hemenway, Edgewood, Providence, Rhode Island.
Vice-presidents, Mr. F. C. Bray, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. J. J. Covert, Pittsburg, Pa.; Mrs. G. M. Luccock, Washington, D. C.; Mr. Walter Weeden, Honolulu; Mr. Clem Studebaker, South Bend, Ind.; Mrs. William E. Magill, Erie, Pa.; Mrs. Harriet Woodcock, Nashville, Tenn.; Mrs. W. E. Marden, Fowler, Cal.; Miss T. B. Fellows, Columbus, O.; Mrs. H. A. Wheeler, Union City, Pa.

Secretary, Mrs. W. T. Hall, Tarentum, Pa.
Assistant Secretary, Miss E. Merritt, Kewanee, Ill.
Treasurer and Trustee, Mrs. J. W. Clark, New Castle, Pa.

CLASS OF 1902—"THE ALTRURIANS."

Motto: "Not for self, but for all." Emblem: The Golden Glow.
President, Mrs. Carlton Hillyer, Augusta, Ga.
Vice-presidents, Dr. G. N. Luccock, Oak Park, Ill.; Dr. E. L. Warren, Louisville, Ky.; Mrs. Josephine Braman, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss H. M. Brown, St. Louis; Mrs. O. P. Norton, Chicago, Ill.; Mr. C. M. Stoddard, Plattsburg, Ill.; Miss Mulets, Norfolk, Nebr.; Mrs. F. M. Keefe, Waltham, Mass.; Mrs. E. H. Baumgartner, Decatur, Texas; Mrs. Robert F. Thorne, Louisville, Ky.; Miss E. Kay, New York City.
Secretary, Mrs Belle K. Richards, Oil City, Pa.
Treasurer, Mrs. Carlton Hillyer, Augusta, Ga.
Trustee, Prof. J. C. Armstrong, Pittsburg, Pa.

CLASS OF 1901—"THE TWENTIETH CENTURY."

Motto. "Light, Love, Life." Emblem: The Palm.
President, Dr. Wm. S. Bainbridge, New York City.
Vice-presidents Mrs. Samuel George, Wellsville, W. Va.; Mrs. Ellsworth Savage, Churchville, N. Y.; Miss Clara Mathews, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss F. A P. Spurway, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss Caroline Leech, Louisville, Ky.; Miss Elizabeth Stewart, Orange, N. J.; Mrs. Elizabeth Stockton, Williamsburg, O. Miss Margaret Hackley, Georgetown, Ky.; Mrs. Laura Banks, New York City.
Secretary and Treasurer, Mrs. M. W. Jamieson, Warren, Pa.
Class Trustee. Mrs. Lawrence, Brooklyn, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1900—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

Motto: "Faith in the God of Truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor." "Licht, Liebe, Leben." Emblem: The Pine.
President, Miss Mabel Campbell, New York City.
Vice-presidents, Mrs. William J. Ritchey, Pittsburg, Pa.; Mrs. Hannah Shur, El Paso, Illinois; Mrs. J. Preston Hall, Fredonia, N. Y.; Miss Mary F. Fuhrman, Shreveport, La.; Miss Frances Cuddy, Ponce, Porto Rico.
Secretary and Treasurer, Miss Ella V. Ricker, Fredericksburg, Va.
Trustee, Miss Ella V. Ricker.

CLASS OF 1899—"THE PATRIOTS."

Motto: "Fidelity, Fraternity." Emblem: The Flag.
President, Captain J. A. Travis, 1008 E. Capitol street, Washington, D. C.
Vice-presidents, Miss Martha A. Bortle, Washington, D. C.; Mr. J. C. Martin, New York City; Mr. P. W. Bemis, Westfield, N. Y.
Secretary, Mrs. S. R. Strong, Chautauqua, New York.
Treasurer, Mrs. J. V. Ritts, Butler, Pa.
Trustee, Mr. J. W. Ford, Hiram, O.

CLASS OF 1898—"THE LANIERS."

Motto: "The humblest life that lives may be divine." Emblem: The Violet.
President, Mrs. M. M. Findlay, Franklin, Pa.
Vice-presidents, Mrs. E. S. Watrous, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. R. P. Hopper, West Toronto, Ont.; Mrs. Isabella M. Hazeltine, Warren, Pa.; Miss J. A. Wilmot, Cleveland, O.; Miss Ella Scofield, Warren, Pa.
Secretary, Mrs. F. M. Nichols, Atlantic, Iowa.
Treasurer and Trustee, Miss Fannie B. Collins, Grand View, Ohio.

CLASS OF 1897—"THE ROMANS."

Motto: "Veni Vidi, Vici." Emblem: The Ivy.
President, Miss Mary Wallace Kimball, 27 W. 38th street, New York City.
Vice-presidents: E. P. Mackie, New Orleans, La.; W. H. Blanchard, Westminster, Vt.; Mrs. A. P. Crossgrove, Pilot Point, Tex.
Secretary, Miss Ella E. Smith, New Haven, Conn.
Assistant Secretary, Mrs. C. M. Thomas, Grove City, Pa.

CLASS OF 1896—"THE TRUTH SEEKERS."

Motto: "Truth is eternal." Emblems: The Forget-me-not. The Greek Lamp.
President, Mr. Frank D. Frisbee, Newton, Mass.
Vice-presidents: Miss Sarah E. Briggs, New Haven, Conn.; Mr. H. W. Sadd, Wapping, Conn.; Mrs. Cynthia A. Butler, Pittsfield, Ill.; Mrs. Mary

Hogan Ludlum, St. Louis, Mo.; Mrs. John D. Hamilton, Coraopolis, Pa.; Mrs. Frances Wood, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. Margaret A. Seaton, Cleveland, O.; Mr. Sidney R. Miller, Union City, Pa.; Dr. Wm. C. Bower, Lebanon, Kan.; Miss Mabel I. Fullagar, Penn Yan, N. Y.; Mr. Geo. H. Lincks, Jersey City, N. J.; Dr. Geo. W. Peck, Buffalo, N. Y.

Secretary and Treasurer, Miss Emily E. Birchard, 28 Penrose Avenue, Cleveland, O.

Trustee, Mr. J. R. Conner, Franklin, Pa.

CLASS OF 1895—"THE PATHFINDERS."

Motto: "The truth shall make you free." Emblem: The Nasturtium.

Honorary President, Mr. Robert Miller, Ponce, Porto Rico.

President, Mrs. George P. Hukill, Oil City, Pa.

Vice-presidents, Miss Mary Miller, Akron, Ohio; Mrs. E. H. Peters, Newark, N. J.; Mrs. O. A. Jones, Rimersburg, Pa.; Mrs. Charles, Cuba, N. Y.

Secretary and Trustee, Miss A. Lawrence, Brooklyn, N. Y., 724 Flatbush Avenue.

Treasurer, Miss F. M. Hazen, Chautauqua, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1894—"THE PHILOMATHEANS."

Motto: "Ubi mel, ibi apes." Emblem: The Clover.

President, Rev. A. C. Ellis, Oil City, Pa.

Vice-presidents, Rev. D. A. Cunningham, D. D., Wheeling, W. Va.; Rev. J. B. Countryman, Penfield, N. Y.; Miss M. L. Monroe, Southport, Conn.; Mrs. J. W. Ralston, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. J. M. Coble, Dallas, Tex.; Mr. James A. Moore, Allegheny, Pa.; Mrs. A. P. Clark, Zanesville, O.

Secretary and Treasurer, Miss Anna M. Thomson, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Trustee, Rev. D. A. Cunningham, Wheeling, W. Va.

CLASS OF 1893—"THE ATHENIANS."

Motto: "Study to be what you wish to seem." Emblem: The Acorn.

Honorary President, Rev. Chas. Thayer, Minneapolis, Minn.

President, Rev. M. D. Lichliter, 1325 Otter street, Franklin, Pa.

Vice-presidents, Dr. George E. Vincent, University of Chicago; Mrs. Mary B. Ashton, Hamilton, O.; Mr. W. H. Conrad, Port Jervis, N. Y.; Mr. W. H. Scott, Syracuse, N. Y.; Mr. E. Henry Levy, Jamaica, N. Y.; Mrs. Daniel Paul, Washington, D. C.; Mrs. H. C. Pharr, Berwick, La.; Mrs. Julia H. Thayer, Sherman, N. Y.; Mrs. T. H. Paden, New Concord, O.; Mrs. J. H. Roblee, St. Louis, Mo.

Secretary, Mrs. Anna R. Silvers, Belfast, N. Y.

Treasurer, Mrs. Julia H. Thayer, Sherman, N. Y.

Class Trustee, Mr. T. H. Paden, New Concord, Ohio.

CLASS OF 1892—"THE COLUMBIANS."

Motto: "Seek and ye shall find." Emblem: The Carnation.

President, Mrs. T. E. McCray, Bradford, Pa.

First Vice-president, Mrs. Eloise L. Cotton, Griggsville, Ill.

Second Vice-president, Miss M. E. F. Eaton, Southport, Conn.

District Vice-presidents, Mrs. J. H. Vincent, Indianapolis, Ind.; Mrs. J. L. Hurlbut, Bloomfield, N. J.; Mrs. L. M. Beardsley, Derby, Conn.; Mrs. High, Miss Heitzmann.

Secretary and Treasurer, Mrs. Lillian B. Clarke, Andover, N. Y.

Trustee, Miss Lydia M. Campbell, Chicago, Ill.

CLASS OF 1891—"THE OLYMPIANS."

Motto: "So run that ye may obtain." Emblem: The Laurel and the White Rose.

President, Mrs. George Guernsey, Independence, Kan.

Vice-presidents, Miss Laura E. Dibble, Ashland, Ky.; Miss Jennie Williamson, Louisville, Ky.

Secretary, Mrs. L. L. Hunter, Tidioute, Pa.

Treasurer, Miss M. A. Daniels, New Britain, Conn.

Trustee, Mrs. William Breeden, Jamestown, N. Y.

Historian, Miss M. A. Daniels, New Britain, Conn.

CLASS OF 1890—"THE PIERIANS."

Motto: "Redeeming the time." Emblem: The Tuberose.

President, Mr. Z. L. White, Columbus, O.

Vice-presidents, Mrs. A. M. Martin, Los Angeles, Cal.; Mrs. M. M. Ahlstrom, Jamestown, N. Y.; Miss S. S. Paddock, Jersey City, N. J.

Secretary, Miss Sarah L. Balfe, Toledo, O.

Treasurer, Mrs. Z. L. White, Columbus, O.
Trustee, Mrs. M. M. Ahlstrom.

CLASS OF 1889—"THE ARGONAUTS."

Motto: "Knowledge unused for the good of others is more vain than unused gold." Emblem: The Daisy.
President, W. A. Hutchison, D. D., Augusta, Ill.
Vice-presidents, Mrs. James A. Leeds, Louisville, Ky.; Rev. J. E. Rudisill, Columbus, O.; Mrs. S. F. Daily, Indianapolis, Ind.; Mrs. Jennie E. Griffith, Chicago, Ill.
Honorary Vice-presidents, Mrs. J. R. Hawes, Elgin, Ill.; Mrs. Charles Douglas, New York City.
Secretary and Treasurer, Miss E. Louise Savage, Rochester, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1888—"THE PLYMOUTH ROCK."

Motto: "Let us be seen by our deeds." Emblem: The Geranium.
President, Rev. A. E. Dunning, Boston, Mass.
Vice-presidents, Mr. S. C. Johnson, Racine, Wis.; Rev. D. L. Martin, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. C. P. Collins, Tulsa, Okla.; Mrs. J. Watson Selvage, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mr. Arthur D. Horton, New Kensington, Pa.
Secretary, Miss Thankful M. Knight, Hancock, N. Y.
Treasurer and Class Trustee, Mr. Russell L. Hall, New Canaan, Conn.
Class Chronicler, Mrs. A. C. Teller, Pittsburg, Pa.

CLASS OF 1887—"THE PANSY."

Motto: "Neglect not the gift that is in thee." Emblem: The Pansy.
President, Wm. G. Lightfoote, Canandaigua, N. Y.
Vice-presidents, H. E. Barrett, Syracuse, N. Y.; Rev. G. R. Alden, Palo Alto, Cal.; Mrs. A. H. Pierce, Knoxville, Tenn.; Mrs. Noah Clark, Oil City, Pa.; Mrs. Lillian Salmon, Kansas City, Mo.
Secretary, Miss A. M. Bentley, Meadville, Pa.
Treasurer, Miss Letitia Flocker, 408 Jackson street, Allegheny, Pa.
Trustee, Miss C. A. Teal, Chautauqua, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1886—"THE PROGRESSIVES."

Motto: "We study for light to bless with light." Emblem: The Aster.
Honorary President, Mrs. Luella Knight, Chicago, Ill.
President, Miss Sarah M. Soule, Dodge City, Kan.
Vice-presidents, Dr. G. W. Gerwig, Allegheny, Pa.; Mrs. S. D. Chaney, Joliet, Ill.; Miss Effie Danforth, Norwalk, O.; Mrs. D. B. Crouch, Erie, Pa.
Secretary, Mrs. Mary V. Rowley, Cleveland, O.
Treasurer, Mrs. Amy S. Travis, 1008 E. Capitol street, Washington, D. C.
Poet, Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller, Evanston, Ill.
Trustee, Mrs. Minnie Peckham, 418 E. 6th street, Jamestown, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1885—"THE INVINCIBLES."

Motto: "Press on, reaching after those things which are before." Emblem: The Heliotrope.
President, Mrs. Charles Hinckley, Delhi, N. Y.
Honorary Member, Edward Everett Hale, Boston, Mass.
Vice-president, Mrs. M. L. Ensign, Chautauqua, N. Y.
Secretary and Treasurer, Mrs. T. J. Bentley, Springboro, Pa.

CLASS OF 1884—"THE IRREPRESSIBLES."

Motto: "Press forward; he conquers who wills." Emblem: The Goldenrod.
President, Rev. W. D. Bridge, Orange, N. J.
Vice-presidents, Mrs. J. D. Park, Cincinnati, O.; Mrs. R. B. Powers, Cincinnati, O.; Mr. J. S. Shearer, Cincinnati, O.; Miss M. F. Hawley, Philadelphia; Mr. John Fairbanks, Seattle, Mass.; Mr. George Miner, Fredonia, N. Y.
Recording Secretary, Mrs. Adelaide L. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.
Corresponding Secretary, Miss Emma B. Gail, Corry, Pa.
Treasurer, Miss S. N. Graybiel, Buffalo, N. Y.
Trustees for two years, Mrs. C. P. Matthews, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Miss S. N. Graybiel, Buffalo, N. Y.
Trustee for one year, Miss Kate M. Cowles, Jamestown, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1883—"THE VINCENTS."

Motto: "Step by step we gain the heights." Emblem: The Sweet Pea.
President, Mrs. Thomas Alexander, Franklin, Pa.
Vice-presidents, Miss Annie H. Gardner, Dorchester, Mass.; Mrs. Mary E. Cope, Salem, O.
Secretary, Miss Ann C. Hitchcock, Burton, O.
Treasurer, Miss M. J. Perrine, Chautauqua, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1882—"THE PIONEERS."

Motto: "From height to height." Emblem: The Hatchet.
President, Mrs. B. T. Vincent, Golden, Col.
Honorary Member, Miss Mary A. Lathbury, Cambridge, Mass.
Vice-presidents, Dr. J. L. Hurlbut, Bloomfield, N. J.; Mrs. Milton Bailey, Jamestown, N. Y.; Rev. J. M. Bray, Westfield, N. Y.; Mrs. L. D. Wetmore, Warren, Pa.
Secretary and Treasurer, Miss May E. Wightman, cor. Fisk street and Howley avenue, Pittsburg, Pa.
Trustees, Mrs. Thomas Park, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Miss Ella Beaujean, Ghautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. Jno. G. Allen, Rochester, N. Y.; Miss L. Armstrong, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Rev. B. F. Wade, Cleveland, O.

GRADUATE ORDERS.

THE SOCIETY OF THE HALL IN THE GROVE.

Honorary President, Chancellor John H. Vincent, Indianapolis, Indiana.
President, Dr. J. L. Hurlbut, Bloomfield, New Jersey.
Vice-presidents, the presidents of the C. L. S. C. graduate classes.
Secretary, Mr. Frank D. Frisbie, Newton Center, Mass.
Board of Directors, Dr. George E. Vincent, Mr. Scott Brown, Mr. Robert A. Miller, Mr. Frank Chapin Bray, Miss Kate F. Kimball, Miss Martha Bortle, Miss S. D. Grant, Mrs. Helen L. Bullock, Mrs. E. S. Barnett, Miss H. M. Brown, Mr. Clifford B. LePage, and Mr. S. C. Johnson.

THE ORDER OF THE WHITE SEAL.

President, J. D. Croissant, Washington, D. C.
Vice-president, Mrs. Ella M. Warren, Minneapolis, Minn.
Secretary, Mrs. E. M. Woodworth, Elgin, Ill.

THE LEAGUE OF THE ROUND TABLE.

President, Mrs. A. H. Chance, Vineland, N. J.
First Vice-president, Miss R. W. Brown, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Second Vice-president, Mrs. Hard, East Liverpool, O.
Executive Committee, Miss M. C. Hyde, Friendship, N. Y.; Miss C. E. Whaley, Pomeroy, O.; Miss Mary W. Kimball, New York City.

GUILD OF THE SEVEN SEALS.

President, Mrs. R. B. Burrows, Andover, N. Y.
Vice-presidents, Mrs. N. B. E. Irwin, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. T. B. Hoover, Oil City, Pa.
Secretary, Mrs. J. T. Rowley, 44 Collamer avenue, East Cleveland, O.
Assistant Secretary, Miss L. Armstrong, Chautauqua, N. Y.
Treasurer, Miss E. C. Dewey, New York City.

ALUMNI ASSOCIATION.

President, Captain John A. Travis, Washington, D. C.
Vice-presidents, Rev. D. A. Cunningham, Wheeling, W. Va.; Miss Margaret A. Hackley, Georgetown, Ky.; Dr. G. W. Gerwig, Allegheny, Pa.
Secretary and Treasurer, Mr. Russell L. Hall, New Canaan, Conn.
Building Committee, Capt. J. A. Travis, Russell L. Hall, and John R. Conner.

Esperanto News

THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL ESPERANTO CONGRESS.

The Fourth International Esperanto Congress so successfully held in Dresden, Germany, last month, voted to hold two International Congresses in 1909; one in Chautauqua, N. Y., in the last week of August, and another in Barcelona, Spain, at a later date. This decision was greatly influenced by the strenuous efforts of the Esperanto Association of North America which at the First National Esperanto Convention held in Chautauqua during the third week of last July united all the Esperanto movements in the United States and Canada.

ESPERANTO PERIODICALS.

A striking proof of the progress of Esperanto is the constant appearance of new Esperanto periodicals. On July last there were fifty-five Esperanto gazettes, most of them monthlies, an advance of eleven on the number for December, 1907. Of the new ones, two are of general interest (one of them *Espero,* a 48-page magazine in Esperanto and Russian, goes out monthly to upward of 100,000 readers as a supplement to the well known Radical review *Vjestnik Znania*); two are for specialists: *Europa Kristana Celado* (the official organ of the United States Christian Endeavor Societies), and the *Vocho de Kuracistoj* (an international review for medical men); and the remaining are national propaganda monthlies for Catalonia, Mexico, Roumania, Chile, Ethonia, Italy, etc. An official police gazette in Budapest has opened in its pages a special column for Esperanto, and intends in due course to found an International Police Review.

ESPERANTO AND INTERNATIONAL SOCIETIES.

Several more non-Esperantist societies have adopted Esperanto for correspondence purposes: The Troyes section of the "Ligue des Droits de l'Homme," the Academy of Social Sciences in Burgos, and the central office of the Freemasons in Berne.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The following recognitions of Esperanto by public institutions are worthy of note: In Bohemia, the Organizing Committee of the Jubilee Exhibition in Prague published an illustrated Esperanto circular and has officially invited the members of the Esperantist Congress at Dresden to Prague and the Exhibition after the Congress. The Postmaster-General has authorized the use of Esperanto in telegrams within the United Kingdom on an equal footing with modern European languages at the ordinary rate. At St. Etienne, France, the city voted a subvention of 300 frances to the local Esperanto Group. In Dresden, the city has shown practical interest and coöperation in the matter by making a donation of $1,250.00 to the Congress expenses, and has decided to place the municipal tramways free of charge at the disposal of the delegates. The city also provided free of charge the steamer for the Congress excursion on the Elbe to Meissen and Saxon, Switzerland. In Japan, Count Hayashi, Minister of Foreign Affairs, has accepted the honorary presidency of the Japanese Esperanto Association, and in a public letter recommended his fellow-countrymen to take up Esperanto, which he calls the gospel of the world.

In the United States, the government recognized Esperanto by sending Major P. E. Straub, Medical Corps, United States Army,

as its official representative to the Congress. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology has introduced Esperanto into its curriculum on the same footing as the other modern languages. President Van Hise of the University of Wisconsin announced his determination to put Esperanto into the University in October and several other Universities are seriously considering the advisability of so doing. Esperanto is already a regular feature of the Chautauqua Summer School.

The above are but a few facts in regard to Esperanto progress. Facts cannot be gainsaid, and even the most uncompromising of skeptics must admit that there must be some practical worth, aye, and some ideal worth, too, in a language which thus has the power of kindling enthusiasm and enlisting the activities of men and women in ever increasing numbers throughout the world.

A Short Course in Esperanto

II. Prefixes and Suffixes

Perhaps the most important characteristic of Esperanto is its elasticity. By the addition of a number of suffixes and prefixes to any root under certain fixed rules, words may be built up almost indefinitely. The student has already seen the grammatical terminations and the manner of adding them to the root. For example: legi—to read; leganto—a reader; etc. In a similar way, the joining of words is equally simple: Al—to; porti—to carry; alporti—to bring, etc.

The suffixes and prefixes by means of which word-building becomes so easy, should be learned by heart, a few at a time.

PREFIXES.

Mal, which marks the contraries. Ex: bona—good; malbona—evil; estimi—to esteem, malestimi—to despise; supre—above, malsupre—below; amo—love, malamo—hatred, etc.

Bo, which marks relationship by marriage. Ex: patro—father, bopatro—father-in-law; filino—daughter, bofilino—daughter-in-law.

Dis, which marks disunion or separation. Ex: semi—to sow, dissemi—to disseminate; jeti—to throw, disjeti—to scatter; iri—to go, disiri—to separate, go apart.

Ek, which marks the beginning of an action, or that which is momentary. Ex: kanti—to sing, ekkanti—to begin to sing; krii—to cry, ekkrii—to cry out; vidi—to see, ekvidi—to preceive.

Ge, which marks two sexes united. Ex: patro—father, gepatroj—father and mother, parents; edzo—husband, geedzoj—married pair, husband and wife.

Re, which means again, anew, back. Ex: veni—to come, reveni—to come back, to return; iri—to go, reiri—to go back; vivigi—to cause to live, revivigi—to resuscitate.

SUFFIXES.

Ad, which marks duration of the action or of the idea expressed by the root. Ex: pafo—a shot, pafado—a fusillade, con-

tinuous firing; parolo—speech, parolado—discourse; iri—to go, iradi—to keep going; krii—to cry, kriadi—to continue crying.

Aĵ, which marks something possessing a certain quality or made of. Ex: malnova—old, malnovajo—an antique, something old; bela—beautiful, belajo—a beautiful thing; pentri—to paint, pentrajo—a painting; bona—good, bonajo—something good, a good quality, a good point, malbonajo—a bad point, a defect.

An, which marks the member, the inhabitant, the partisan of. Ex: urbo—city, urbano—citizen; vilaĝo—village, vilaĝano—villager; Bostonano—Bostonian; kristano—Christian.

Ar, which marks an assemblage, a collection of. Ex: arbo—a tree, arbaro—forest; ŝtupo—step, ŝtuparo—staircase; vorto—word, vortaro—dictionary; libro—book, libraro—library, collection of books; ŝipo—ship, ŝiparo—fleet; monto—mountain,montaro—range of mountains.

Ebl, that which is possible, that which can be. Ex: kredi—to believe, kredebla—credible, that can be believed; legi—to read, legebla—legible; manĝi—to eat, manĝebla—eatable.

Ec, marks quality in the abstract. Ex: bela—beautiful, beleco—beauty; juna—young, juneco—youth; amiko—friend, amikeco—friendship; viro—man, vireco—manliness, virility; granda—great, grandeco—greatness; malriĉa—poor, malriĉeco—poverty.

Edz, marks the consort of. Ex: lavistino—washerwoman, lavistinedzo—washerwoman's husband; doktoro—doctor, doktoredzino—wife of a doctor; forĝistedzino—a smith's wife.

Eg, marking the highest degree. Ex: varma—warm, varmega—hot; granda—great, grandega—enormous, immense; pluvo—rain, pluvego—downpour; pafilo—gun, pafilego—cannon; bastono—stick, bastonego—club.

Ej, marks the place specially devoted to. Ex: kuiri—to cook, kuirejo—kitchen; preĝi—to pray, preĝejo—church; lerni—to learn, lernejo—school; malsanulo—sick person, malsanulejo—hospital.

Em, marks inclination, proneness to. Ex: kredi—to believe, kredema—credulous; kredemo—credulity; venĝi—to avenge, venĝema—vindictive; singardi—to take care of one self, singardema—prudent; singardemo—circumspection, prudence; koleri—to be angry, kolerema—irascible.

Er, marks the unit, one out of a collection. Ex: mono—money, monero—a coin; sablo—sand, sablero—a grain of sand; hajlo—hail, hajelro—a hailstone.

Estr, means chief of. Ex: regno—kingdom, state; regnestro—chief of the state, ruler; ŝipo—ship, ŝipestro—master of vessel; lernejo—school, lernejestro—schoolmaster.

Et, diminutive. Ex: knabo—boy, knabeto—little boy; libro—book, libreto—booklet; monto—mountain, monteto—hill; ridi—to laugh, rideti—to smile; dormi—to sleep, dormeti—to slumber.

Id, denotes the descendant or child of. Ex: bovo—bull, bovido—calf; koko—cock, kokido—chicken; Iraelido—Israelite.

Ig, to cause to be, to make. Ex: pura—clean, purigi—to cause to be clean, to cleanse; scii—to know, sciigi—to inform; bruli—to burn, to be on fire; bruligi—to cause to burn, to set on fire; devi—must, devigi—to necessitate, to compel; morti—to die, mortigi—to slay; fianĉo—fiancé, fianĉigi—to betroth; pligranda—greater, pligrandigi—to enlarge; for—forth, away, off, forigi—to eject, to put forth, to cause to be at a distance; sen—without, senigi—to cause to be without, to deprive.

Iĝ, which means to become, to grow, to turn. Ex: maljuna—old, maljuniĝi—to grow old; pala—pale, paliĝi—to turn pale; edzo—husband, edziĝi—to marry; fluida—liquid, fluidiĝi—to liquify; al—to, aliĝi—to ally oneself to, to join.

In, which marks the female sex. Ex: patro—father, patrino—mother, frato—brother, fratino—sister; viro—man, virino—woman; fraŭlo—bachelor, fraŭlino—miss; bovo—bull, bovino—cow.

Il, which marks the instrument. Ex: haki—to hew, hakilo—axe; kombi—to comb, kombilo—a comb; kudri—to sew, kudrilo—needle; tondi—to shear, to clip, tondilo—scissors; levi—to lift, levilo—a lever.

Ind, means worthy of, that which deserves. Ex: kredo—belief, kredinda—worthy of belief; laŭdo—praise, laŭdinda—laudable; memoro—remembrance, memorinda—memorable; bedaŭro—regret, bedaŭrinda—regrettable, bedaŭrinde—unfortunately, in a manner to be regretted.

Ist, marks the profession. Ex: boto—boot, botisto—bootmaker; kuraci—to cure, kuracisto—physician; ŝteli—to steal, ŝtelisto—thief; maro—sea, maristo—seaman.

Ing, marks the object in which the thing expressed by the root is ordinarily introduced or placed. Ex: kandelo—candle, kandelingo—candlestick; plumo—pen, plumingo—penholder; fingro—finger, fingeringo—thimble.

Uj, means that which bears, supports, carries or contains. Ex: cigaro—cigars, cigarujo—cigar-case; mono—money, monujo—purse; sukero—sugar, sukerujo—suggar-bowl; pomo—apple, pomujo—apple-tree; Turko—Turk, Turkujo—Turkey.

Ul, marks a being characterized by. Ex: juno—youth, junulo—a young man; malriĉulo—a poor man; timo—fear, timulo—a coward; avara—greedy, avarulo—a miser.

Translate the following story:

LA REĜO KAJ LIA SERVISTO.

(El la kolekato da Tataraj rakontoj, prezentita de profesoro Katanov en la Arhivoj de la Universitato de Kaozan.)

Reĝo sidis je sia tablo kaj atendis la alporton de mangajoj Sed unu el la servistoj, kiu estis tre timema, faletis kaj kelkaj gutoj de la buljono ŝprucis sur la veston de la reĝo. La reĝo koleris kaj ordonis senkapigi la mallertulon. La malfeliĉulo pensis: "Mi estas filo de la morto, mia savo estas neebla!" kaj li prenis la buljonujon kaj elversis ĝian enhavon sur la reĝon. Tiu ĉi miregis kaj ekkriis: "Ho, junulo, ĉu vi estas posedata de frenezo? Kion vi faris?" La servisto diris: "Mia reĝo, mi ne freneziĝis, miaj pensoj estas en ordo. Mi kuraĝis fari tion ĉi por danki vin pro via boneco al mi. Nun la homoj ne diros pri vi: la reĝo ekzekutigis malfeliĉulon pro ia bagatelo; ili laŭdos vin kaj diros; la reĝo estas tute prava kaj neriproĉinda, ĉar la servisto montris teruregan kaj nepardonindan arogantecon." La reĝo profundiĝis en pensojn kaj diris: "Ho, junulo, malbone aganta kaj bone vin senkulpiganta, mi pardonas vian abomenan faron pro via lertega klarigo." Kaj la reĝo faris al li bonan donacon.

El la lingvo rusa trad. A. KOFMAN.

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"The Consequences of War." By Rubens. (See "The Story of the Peace Movement," page 336)

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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ONE of the issues of the national campaign and of several state campaigns has been "reform of the rules" governing legislative business. The vigorous attacks of the Methodist bishops and other temperance champions, and of progressive western Republicans generally, on Speaker Cannon have created surprise in wide circles, but they are of unquestioned significance. The charge is that Mr. Cannon has abused and perverted the rules of the national House and has usurped the power to control legislation—to say what bills shall be reported from the committees and what bills shall be "strangled" and buried. In the last Congress, for example, the Littlefield bill to regulate interstate liquor shipments and prevent evasion of state prohibition was smothered in committee, though an adverse report would have served every legitimate purpose of the opposition to the measure. A like fate overtook other bills that the people favored and certain special interests opposed.

There were sporadic and little outbreaks of revolt in the House against the tyranny of the Speaker, the rules committee and other "packed" committees. But party considerations and party discipline prevented any formidable rebellion of the dissatisfied Republicans. In the campaign, however, the question assumed such prominence that not a few Republican candidates for Congress openly repudiated the policy of the ruling clique, and especially of Mr.

Cannon, while some candidates suffered defeat on account of their support of the tactics of Mr. Cannon.

In state legislative campaigns, notably in Illinois, the same issue, the vindication of the right of majorities to vote on legislation, and of every member to have a fair and honest report on his measure, has figured quite prominently. That rules are necessary to discourage obstruction and filibustering no one denies; that the rules which give committees and the speaker power to smother bills obnoxious to them, to prevent even discussion of such bills on the floor, are either necessary, desirable or defensible is now vigorously denied.

The pretence that only "unconstitutional" bills are so treated is thin and insincere, for it is neither the duty nor the privliege of speakers and committees to pass on questions of constitutionality and "save the country" from alleged invalid legislation. They have the right to debate and vote, but not the right to obstruct. The veto power is lodged in the executive, the power to construe and pronounce upon statutes is lodged in the courts. There is no warrant for usurpation and for the suppression of the rights of majorities, minorities and individuals in the legislatures. Representative government must be restored, and committees must be shorn of the illegitimate power they have been exercising—generally in the interest of privilege and monopoly.

The Guaranteeing of Bank Deposits

A question which will survive the campaign of 1908 and be settled without reference to party politics, though it assumed a somewhat partisan aspect for a time, is that of guaranteeing the deposits in the national and state banks. Millions of people, especially in the West, are intensely interested in the idea, and Oklahoma has led the other states by passing a law for a guaranty fund to which all the banks in the state, except national banks, must contribute.

Mr. Bryan has advocated a national law requiring the national banks to establish and maintain such a fund,

and his arguments have been discussed all over the country. Mr. Taft favors a voluntary guaranty system, but to a compulsory national system he is opposed on the ground that the conservative and careful bankers would have to pay for the mistakes and negligence, or even for the deliberate dishonesty and "wildcatting," of the speculative and reckless bankers. This has been the position of the Republican leaders generally, as well as of the overwhelming majority of the bankers in the East and middle West. Yet some prominent Republicans, including Gov. Hoch of Kansas, favor a national guaranty law, believing that its advantages would decisively outweigh its disadvantages. The Fowler currency bill that appeared too radical to the late Congress provided, among other novel features, for a system of deposit protection, though districts were established by it and each was to have its own fund.

It is not denied that a guaranty system would do away with "runs" and panics. It is not denied that if dishonesty could be prevented and all bankers were forced to do a legitimate business, the plan would be both feasible and desirable. But, it is argued, since some bankers are less fit or less intelligent than others, and since some states have heavier bank losses and more bank failures than others, it would not be just to impose upon all a uniform rate of taxation and a uniform set of restrictions and regulations. Connecticut, for example, has had no bank failure for some years, while New York, thanks to stock speculation and unsound loans, has had very bad bank failures. Would it be proper to make the Connecticut depositors pay the losses of the New York depositors?

Aside from the question of fairness, what, it is further asked, would be the effect of a compulsory and universal guaranty system? Would not bankers now reasonably prudent tend to become careless—knowing that they would not be exposed to "runs"—and would not in the long run the entire banking system suffer grave deterioration?

Mr. Bryan and the other advocates of the plan meet these objections by saying that the apprehended dishonesty

would be prevented by more drastic legislation for the examination and regulation of banks, as well as by supplemental supervision on the part of the better bankers; that the incentives to sound banking would be strengthened by the mutualism and co-operation of the banks; that the criminal law would remain as a deterrent as regards misuse of depositors' funds; that the rate of payment to the general fund would be so small as to be negligible, and, finally, that all insurance is based on the principle of spreading and equalizing losses, though the prudent and conservative always and necessarily pay for the imprudent and the careless.

It is not necessary to summarize the whole case either pro or con the guaranty proposal. That further protection to depositors is essential scarcely needs demonstration; the question is really as to the best and least costly method of providing it. The question will be a vital and pressing one in several states, and it is probable that Oklahoma's lead will be followed by Kansas and Missouri. The Kansas Republicans have indorsed a voluntary system, and perhaps that alternative will be tried somewhere. The outcome of the agitation cannot be predicted with complete certainty, but increased protection is surely coming. Holders of bank notes are protected; depositors in savings banks enjoy a fair, though not a sufficient, measure of protection; depositors in commercial banks will demand better safeguards of their interests.

Defects in the Direct Nomination System

On the whole, the direct primary laws of the western states have, as we have had occasion to say, resulted in marked political improvement. The power of the spoils machines has been impaired; better men have been nominated and elected; known reactionaries have been defeated. The voters feel that they "rule" within the party and are not limited to the choice of evils that often results from nominations made by professional politicians and bosses and ratified by subservient conventions.

Doubtless the direct primary system will spread and become a permanent part of our political system. Gov. Hughes is advocating it in New York, in opposition to the machine politicians, and if the Empire State should adopt direct nominations other eastern states would undoubtedly follow its example.

But already the system has disclosed certain defects which will need to be remedied. These defects have led its foes to declare that it does more harm than good, that it has been tried and found wanting. One defect is that voters of one party vote at the primaries of another at the command of powerful politicians. This has happened in Illinois, in Missouri, in Nebraska, in Michigan and elsewhere. To defeat progressive candidates the spoilsmen of a party make "deals" with those of other parties and secure support of voters who have no intention of changing their affiliations but are willing to lend themselves to interparty "trades" and stratagems. And even where good candidates of one party are helped at the primaries by the voters of another—and this sometimes happens—it is felt that it is unjust that men who will not help elect should have a voice in nominating.

Another defect in the primary system is the great expense to which candidates are put. The lavish expenditure of money in campaigns is an evil, for it involves practical blackmail of candidates and corporations and the creation of political obligations that cannot honorably be paid without sacrificing the interests of the people. But if the expense is merely to be shifted from machines and organizations to individuals the wealthy candidates will have an undue advantage and the poor men will be discriminated against in the operation of the whole system. The individual candidate must circulate petitions, do a little advertising, pay hall rent and incur other legitimate expenses; and he must do this twice in many instances, before the primary and before the election.

The primary system must be simplified and safeguarded against fraud and waste. It is the friends of direct nomi-

nations who must attend to these improvements, for otherwise the spoilsmen and bosses will discredit and undermine the new system by emphasizing its faults and imperfections.

The Commodities Clause Cases

Another important law has been declared unconstitutional by the federal courts. The so-called commodities clause of the Hepburn railroad rate act—and that act is unquestionably the most notable achievement of the Roosevelt regime—has been pronounced void by the Circuit Court for the eastern district of Pennsylvania. The clause provides, in effect, that railroads or other common carriers that own or control mines or factories and manufacture or sell products shall not transport such products in interstate commerce. The effect of the clause, if legal, is to force the coal-carrying roads to sell their mines and other railroads to give up all production and manufacture of commodities save timber and its products, which are expressly exempted by the clause from the general prohibition.

The clause was enacted in response to a public demand for taking railroads out of other business than carrying. There was convincing evidence that any proprietary interest in other business inevitably led to favoritism, discrimination, unfair competition and like evils. That carriers should be limited to the business of transporting the goods of others is a principle that all accept. The present constitution of Pennsylvania fully recognizes it. But a number of railroads acquired and secured the control of mines prior to the adoption of any state or federal provision against such practices, and the question is whether legislation that directly or indirectly compels them to part with or cease operation of such properties is valid, even assuming that a law regarding future relations and transactions of this character is constitutional.

The federal court above named, with one judge dissenting, held that the commodity section of the rate act, in so far at least as it affects property acquired prior to its adoption,

is invalid, being an invasion of the rights of the states and amounting to the taking of private property without due process of law. Judge Gray said in his opinion:

> Ample as is the scope of legislative power granted by the language of the commerce clause, and far as the Supreme Court has undoubtedly gone in sustaining the validity of legislation under it, we think it may be safely said that no assertion of this power hitherto, by Congress, has been so far-reaching or affected in so serious a degree the individual liberty and property rights enjoyed under the constitution and laws of a state as the enactment we are here considering. It is not to be denied that the right to carry in interstate commerce coal which they own in whole or in part, or which is mined or produced by them under their authority, or by coal companies in which they are stockholders was, until the passage of the act in question, a lawful right of these defendants; that it was a common right of property, neither denied nor disputed by the common or statute law of Pennsylvania; that it was a most important property right, the enjoyment and exercise of which was neither criminal nor immoral, and subject only to any restraints imposed upon its possessors by the common or statute law of the state, or by the then existing statutes of the United States, so far as they were engaged in interstate commerce. If in any manner and to any extent whatever they have actually violated the latter, surely they could be restrained or otherwise made amenable to the legal penalties in such behalf without crippling or destroying a business in which they are profitably and usefully engaged.

There are able lawyers who believe that the Supreme Court will reverse this decision. They base their belief on the settled interpretation of the commerce clause of the Constitution. That clause gives Congress plenary and exclusive power over interstate commerce. The states cannot regulate such commerce, and have indeed nothing to do with it. Where goods have to be shipped from one state into another, or into a foreign country, the matter of regulating such shipments is entirely under the control of Congress. By virtue of this power the transmission of lottery tickets has been forbidden, and that irrespective of whether the states legalize lotteries, as they used to do, or prohibit them. It has been argued in Congress and by the Department of Justice that if the national legislature saw fit to do so it could even forbid the carrying of trust-made goods from one state to another. If this be true, and if the precedents sustain this view, why cannot Congress declare that carriers which operate mines or factories shall not transport the products of these into other states? Such a law

does not invade the sphere of the states, for it concerns interstate shipments only.

It may be, however, that the congressional power to regulate and prescribe the conditions of interstate commerce is subject to limitations not heretofore recognized. The power to regulate may not include the power to prohibit transactions that in themselves are innocent. The Supreme Court will be called upon to deal with these vital questions and interpret afresh the commerce clause of the constitution.

Doubts and Fears as to Turkey

The amazing and "miraculous" character of the Turkish revolution is still a subject of general discussion in Europe and America. The developments so far continue, at least on the surface, to be remarkably favorable. The Young Turks and the reformers are supreme, and their representatives control the government in the capital and in the provincial centers, not excepting Macedonia. Great changes are being planned in the army and navy, in the finances of the empire, in taxation, in education, in administration. The program of reform is most ambitious and intelligent. Moreover, peace and order have been preserved. The new regime has been accepted, there are no serious signs of reaction and discontent, as in Russia, for example. All the testimony which comes from impartial observers is singularly good—though there is an undertone of doubt and skepticism. For instance, a correspondent of *The Outlook*, writing from Beyrout, gives this picture of the situation in Syria:

> The local situation is extraordinary. "Liberty, equality and fraternity" are on every one's lips, but the stress seems to be on "fraternity." The promulgation of the Constitution, the granting of liberty to the press and to the person, have resulted for the moment, not in license of speech and action, but in a new sense of brotherhood among the warring elements of the people. * * * Monster meetings are still held almost every night, each night in a different section of Beyrout, at which sentiments of mutual regard are interchanged between Moslem and Christian, accompanied by denunciation of evil deeds and doers. Both meetings and expression of such sentiments are things quite new. One district of the city has long been the storm

center of the ancient vendetta between the rival religions. Here took place the series of murders, barely five years ago, which might have resulted in a serious massacre had it not been for the presence of two American men-of-war sent by President Roosevelt. As it was, thousands of Christians fled from the city, which did not resume its normal business life for weeks. A few days after the Constitution was promulgated the Moslem roughs marched with banners to this district, embraced their Christian enemies, invited them to a feast in the Square near the Barracks, and, the invitation being accepted, served them with their own hands. Later the compliment was returned. These are but examples of many similar feasts. At one meeting soldiers and Armenians exchanged the noblest sentiments. Such high pressure of fervor cannot last—the day's bulletins sound like chapters from Isaiah—but we may hope that there may be a settling down to a tolerant *modus vivendi* instead of a reaction into something worse than the past has shown.

The grounds for skepticism are many. The revolution was distinctly of a military origin and character, and its very completeness is terrifying. Will the army seek to control parliament as it controls the administration? And will it be selfish and narrow in its aim? The old regime was harsh and bad for officers and soldiers, and that was why it was so easily overthrown. But if the army should be unreasonable in its demands there will be friction and discord, and the constitution may prove a paper of little moment. In the second place, the revolutionary societies are secret and small bodies, and even today the identity of the leaders of the movement is unknown. In the third place, the masses of the people seem to be rather indifferent at bottom to the freedom that has been gained for them. Or, rather, they fail to appreciate it and may not defend it in the event of an assault and counter-revolution. Finally, the racial composition of the Turkish population is such that under genuine constitutionalism other races, Christian chiefly, would have greater power and influence than the Turks themselves. It is asked whether it is reasonable to expect the latter to yield supremacy to the other races. If they will not yield, the parliament will not be representative, and racial conflicts will spring up again.

The world, however, is hoping for the best, and meantime the events already witnessed possess the greatest significance as further evidence of a new spirit in the East and

of a capacity for progress and emulation of the West. The completion and opening of a railroad from Damascus to Medina, a distance of six hundred miles, and the projected extension of the line to Mecca, also attest Turkish growth and energy. The opening of Arabia to civilization and the taming of the fanatical and proud tribes will tend to unify Turkey and strengthen it both in a military and economic way.

Complications in Morocco and European Peace

A contributor to the series of articles on "International War or Peace?" now appearing in this magazine, has set forth the essential facts of the Moroccan situation in its relation to "world politics" and the present "equilibrium of Europe," which is generally regarded as comparatively stable. Only a few weeks ago, however, a sudden act on the part of the German government introduced a new complication and revived the talk, if not the actual danger, of war in Europe over the Moorish "inheritance."

As the readers are aware, the campaign of French and Spanish armies for the pacification of the disturbed ports and surrounding territory in Morocco has been conducted under the Algeciras treaty and in behalf of all the powers that participated in the Algeciras congress. The sole object of the campaign has been to suppress anti-foreign outbreaks and secure peace and order in the kingdom. Unfortunately another campaign was for many months carried on in the interior, a campaign for the overthrow of the "sultan of record," Abdul Aziz, with whom the powers had dealt and who had been the legitimate and somewhat progressive ruler of Morocco, by his half-brother, Mulai Hafid, a claimant to the throne. France and Spain refrained from penetrating the interior or from "taking sides" in that war, although the pretender was threatening to proclaim a "holy war" against Christians and pledging himself to the more fanatical tribesmen to repudiate the concessions that had been made by the "weak ruler" to the powers of Europe.

Non-interference on the part of Europe may have been the wisest policy, but has not been a policy free from dangers and difficulties. At first the pretender seemed doomed to defeat, and after some reverses the powers treated him as a mere disturber. Delegates he sent to the various capitals, to ask for a hearing, were denied official recognition. But the fortunes of war finally began to favor him, and tribe after tribe enlisted under his banner. Finally he triumphed and drove the "sultan of record" out of the capital and into virtual isolation. He was proclaimed sultan, and the question of his recognition by the powers was revived. That recognition was inevitable was clear to all, but on what terms and conditions? France insisted that he must pledge himself to respect and abide by the Algeciras treaty and other conventions limiting the power of Morocco and placing it under European control. Germany, to assert its independence, unexpectedly issued a note urging immediate recognition and sent its minister to the court of the successful pretender. This action has been variously construed and severely criticised in British, Belgian and other organs of opinion. It seemed to involve a repudiation of the concert of the powers and the Algeciras treaty. It seemed to threaten a clash with France. It indicated a desire to "fish in troubled waters" and gain the good will of the new sultan for Germany. At this writing the incident is not regarded as closed, though an understanding between France and Germany is generally expected. Possibly the moral effect of the episode in Morocco is all that Germany intended to "realize" by her move. The alarm it caused, however, illustrates the essential instability of the world's peace even today.

The Aeroplane and the Conquest of the Air

Is human invention to take another great stride and register another revolutionary change in transportation and locomotion? Is the old problem of "flying machines" at last to be solved?

A few weeks ago the layman, the naval and army expert and even the cautious scientist were disposed to answer these questions with great confidence—and affirmatively. The wonderful records of Count Zeppelin of Germany, of Farnam, the French-Scotch air navigator, of Delagrange, the Frenchman, and especially of the Wright Brothers of this country, seemed to justify such confidence. "The conquest of the air" was the theme of enthusiastic editorials and interviews galore, and many were discussing the military aspects and results of such conquest, as well as the commercial possibilities of "aviation." German, French, Belgian and other companies were announced for the construction and use of airships in ordinary travel from Paris to Berlin or London. Another year or two, it was said, and airships will be so perfected that passengers will prefer them to ships and trains and automobiles.

But certain tragic accidents—the sudden destruction of the splendid Zeppelin dirigible balloon after a record-breaking journey over the lakes and mountains; the disaster of the Wright aeroplane at Fort Myer, with the death of Lieut. Selfridge, the severe injuries to the inventor and the wrecking of the machine in which it resulted, and a number of minor failures and difficulties—have induced soberer and more moderate views of the "aerial situation."

The new records and achievements are wonderful indeed, and they not only show how much progress there has been in aeronautics in the last year or so but how much further progress we may reasonably expect in the near future.

The "record" for the dirigible balloon is thirteen hours in the air and a flight from Berlin to Magdeburg and back, with a two-hours' stop in the air. The aeroplane record is over ninety minutes in the air and the covering of sixty-one miles. It has been demonstrated that heavier-than-air machines can be kept afloat and directed with ease and facility high above the ground. In principle the flight problem has thus been solved, but from any practical point of view the solution is still far off. The dirigible balloon is subject to too many accidents. The aeroplane, which has greater

possibilities according to inventors and men of science, is still nothing more than a toy or promise. It requires high rates of speed, and speed multiplies the chances of disaster and loss of life. Neither war nor commerce can do much with an invention that is so uncertain and so dangerous, and which requires rare skill, rare courage and rare presence of mind. There are thus many difficulties yet to be overcome, especially as regards questions of carrying capacity of airships, regulation of speed, prevention of fatal accidents, etc. Much of the current talk respecting "war in the air" and immediate provision for aerial fleets for defence and offence is highly fanciful and speculative. But the interest in the subject is as legitimate as it is wide. We seem to be on the eve of tremendous developments in the theory and practice of aeronautics.

Note and Comment

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES.

The "parliament of man and federation of the world" seems not so remote as bristling armaments would indicate when the many international congresses which are held annually are duly considered. Not only are international peace congresses an admitted factor in the friendship of nations but the gatherings of scientists, scholars, commercial bodies and the like are also significant and influential. Two such important congresses were held in September in addition to the gathering to celebrate the dedication of the bureau of Central American Republics which we note elsewhere. The first congress of the International White Cross Association opened at Geneva, Switzerland, on September 8. This congress was the result of an effort to group the work of the international societies engaged in fighting tuberculosis, cancer and other epidemic diseases; also social scourges, such as alcoholism and the drug habit, as well as food adulteration.

On September 22 the fourth international fisheries congress met at Washington. Many foreign countries and practically every state and territory in the Union were represented.

THE PEACE MOVEMENT.

The Congress of Universal Peace held its seventeenth session in London this year. Its principal resolutions were to the effect that order should be reëstablished in Morocco as soon as possible; that in nations of mixed nationality the language of

the conquered nation shall be granted the greatest possible equality with that of the conquering nation; arbitration must be made obligatory, that a peace agitation be carried on among academic students, as has already been done by "Corda Fratres"; that the governments follow the lead of Great Britain and provide funds for international hospitality; that private property shall not be captured at sea; that the working people of the nations shall be invited to join the peace movement, and finally that all money contributions will be thankfully received at the Berne Peace Bureau, Berne, Switzerland.

In September the Interparliamentary Union met in Berlin. The Union was founded by the late William Randall Cremer, in 1888, and has had nineteen meetings. It consists of 2,500 members of the 15,000 men who sit in the national parliaments of the world. The American delegates were headed by Hon. Richard Bartholdt, of Missouri, who was later elected vice-president of the Union. Chancellor Von Bülow opened the session with a remarkable speech, which gave the lie to the rumors current in the English press of late that Germany was preparing for war. A telegram was received from the Kaiser, stating that he hoped the work of the Union would bear fruit. Mr. Bartholdt introduced two resolutions, one having to do with the right of each nation to perpetual possession of its undisputed territory and sovereignty therein; the other with the selection of an international arbitration court, and the best form of a national arbitration treaty. Representative Bartholdt's resolutions were referred to a committee, who will report back at a future meeting of the Union.

England has announced that she will hereafter contribute annually $1,500 to the Interparliamentary Union, and it is expected that all the other national groups will request their governments to do the same. Minister Hill gave a luncheon to the American group; a letter from Mr. Carnegie to Mr. Bartholdt was read, suggesting that if the Kaiser would form an alliance with England and the United States, they could stop war by force; and then the Union adjourned to meet next year in Quebec. On the same day an imposing German workingmen's peace demonstration was held in Berlin. Some 20,000 German workingmen were assembled to welcome a delegation of English workingmen, and great enthusiasm was expressed on both sides when the English delegates presented an address requesting the Germans to co-operate with them in furthering the cause of arbitration.

Germany and Italy have jointly requested Holland to call a second conference of the Powers who were represented at the last Hague Conference to take part in another conference at The Hague probably in 1909, to discuss international exchange. —*From the Independent.*

GROWING POWER OF EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

The unification of Germany which has been the triumph of German statesmanship during the last half century is not as complete as it may ultimately become. In accordance with the agreements of succession, failure in the male line of descent in the royal and ducal houses now reigning in the states constituting the German Empire,

results in some instances in the lands of those houses coming directly into the possession of Emperor William, as King of Prussia. In a number of the important states male heirs are but sparsely represented and a change of the succession is, therefore, probable in the not remote future. Eleven of the twenty-two dynasties which rule the states forming the German Empire are threatened with extinction, among them being: Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Baden, Hesse, Oldenburg, Saxe-Altenburg, and Saxe-Weimar.

PEACE AND HARMONY IN CENTRAL AMERICA.

On September 15, President Cabrera, of Guatemala, formally opened the International Bureau of Central American Republics, an institution which should do much to promote international peace and welfare among the Latin American countries.

The new bureau was established by a convention signed by the representatives of the five republics at the Central American Peace Conference, held at Washington, last winter. I ts object is the development of the interests common to Central America. President Estrada Cabrera spoke of the necessity of the bureau, his desire for peace in Central America and expressed his firm determination to establish the obligations under which the contracting governments placed themselves to the United States and Mexico, which are regarded as ample assurance that the terms of the convention will be carried out. The chief executive's absolute neutrality in the last revolution in Honduras, and his prompt recognition of the court of justice at Cartago, Costa Rica, another outgrowth of the peace conference, are pointed out as abundant proof of his attitude.

The International Bureau of Central American Republics will occupy a relationship to the latter countries similar to that which the International Bureau of American Republics now bears to those of the Latin-American continent. Special effort will be made to reorganize peacefully the states of Central America and to impress on public education an essentially Central American character, in a uniform sense, making it as broad, practical and complete as possible, in accordance with modern tendencies. The development of the commerce of the signatories to the convention to make it more active and profitable and to promote agricultural industries is one of the things which the new bureau will strive to accomplish. One of the important objects will be to make uniform the civil, commercial and criminal legislation of the five republics, recognizing as fundamental principles the inviolability of life, respect for property and the sacredness of personal rights.

Uniformity in the system of custom houses, in the monetary system, in such a manner as to obtain a fixed rate of exchange, and general sanitation is also to be arranged.

The bureau will be a medium of intelligence among the signatories, and will issue to the respective countries all reports and information necessary for the development of the relations and interests intrusted to it. While independent of the international bureau at Washington, the one established in Guatemala City will maintain intercourse with the latter. The expenses for the maintenance of the new institution will be paid in equal parts by the countries constituting it.

The Story of the Peace Movement*

By Benjamin F. Trueblood, LL. D.

WITHIN a few years an enormous amount of interest in the origin and history of the international peace movement has appeared. This interest has been awakened by the recent extraordinary development of the movement on its practical side. No other philanthropic movement, either national or international, has made anything like as much gain in the last two decades as that for world peace. In proof of this statement one need only cite the multiplication of Peace Societies, now about five hundred in number, the organization and growth of the Interparliamentary Union the International Peace Congresses held since 1889, the work of the Mohonk Arbitration Conferences, the conclusion of more than three-score arbitration treaties within the last five years, the National Arbitration and Peace Conferences and Congresses recently held, the Pan-American Congresses, the two Hague Conferences, the setting up of the Permanent Tribunal of Arbitration, and the laying of the bases, by the Second Hague Conference, of a regular World Congress or Parliament and of an International Court of Arbitral Justice or Supreme Court of the World. All these great attainments are felt not to be sudden happenings, and thoughtful men

*The first article of this series, "The European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World," by Victor S. Yarros, appeared in the September CHAUTAUQUAN; the second article, by the same author, "Danger Points About the Globe," in the October number.

and women everywhere are beginning to inquire into their sources and history.

The story of the peace movement, which has now attained such large proportions, has been making itself for about one hundred years. Only a sketch of its most salient features can be put into the limits of a single magazine article.

The movement began in the early part of the last century as a reaction against the bloody and disastrous campaigns which had been desolating Europe for nearly a quarter of a century. This reaction would not, of course, have taken place, had it not been for the general growth of civilization and the increasing hold which reason and humane sentiment were taking upon the peoples of the more advanced nations. For campaigns just as terrible and devastating had raged in Europe almost incessantly for centuries without awakening any very serious attempt to counteract the spirit out of which they sprang. It is true that Henry the Fourth, Hugo Grotius, William Penn, the Abbe de St. Pierre, Bentham, Rousseau, and Kant had, during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, presented the idea of universal peace and of the means by which it should be attained, but the proposals of these great publicists for the most part were couched in idealistic forms and there was little hint of any practical effort to realize them. It is fairly certain that these men had little expectation of any immediate realization of their idealistic schemes. They felt, doubtless, that centuries still stretched before them before any realization of their ideals could be expected.

Soon after the opening of the nineteenth century, however, men in the United States, in England, and in France, and to a more limited extent also in other countries, began to feel that the time had come when practical steps should be taken for arresting and limiting war and for its possible ultimate extinction. As early as 1809 David L. Dodge, a Christian merchant of New York City, published a pamphlet entitled, "The Redeemer's Kingdom not of this World," in which he set forth the inconsistency of war, as then waged

throughout the world, with the principles of the Christian system. This was really the beginning of the modern movement. In Great Britain about the same time a similar feeling sprang up, growing out of the impression left by what Lord Russell called "the most bloody hostilities that ever mangled the face of Europe," that the hour had come when something should be done to redeem humanity from the blighting curse of war. In 1814, Mr. William Allen, a philanthropic citizen of London, belonging to the Society of Friends, who had for some years been pondering over the subject, called together some of his friends to consider the expediency of organizing a Peace Society. So great was the interest shown at this meeting that a committee was formed to draw up a plan of action. The campaign which ended in Waterloo the next year prevented, however, the consummation of the plan, and nothing was done at the time.

In the meantime Dr. Noah Worcester published on Christmas Day in 1814 in Boston his famous pamphlet, "A Solemn Review of the Custom of War." This "Solemn Review" came like a trumpet to the churches on both sides of the Atlantic. Several editions of it were published in this country and likewise in England, and it made a great impression. In New York, David L. Dodge had written another pamphlet entitled, "War Inconsistent with the Religion of Jesus Christ," and in August, 1815, there was organized in his parlor the first Peace Society that ever existed. The same year, on the second of December, the Ohio Peace Society was formed, and on the twenty-sixth of December, the Massachusetts Peace Society. Among the signers of the constitution of the Massachusetts Society, which soon took the lead in the new movement, were the Governor and Lieutenant Governor of the State, Dr. William E. Channing, Dr. Noah Worcester and several professors of Harvard College, including the president, Dr. Kirkland.

The next year, 1816, Mr. Allen called together in London the committee which had been appointed two years before, but which had done little during the preceding twelve months, and it was decided immediately to organize a

society. The organization was completed on the fourteenth of June, 1816, four days before the first anniversary of Waterloo, and the new organization was christened "The Society for the Promotion of Universal and Permanent Peace." This society, now called simply the Peace Society, has continued its labors ever since, and is today one of the foremost agencies in the advancement of the cause.

On both sides of the water the movement thus started developed with great rapidity. In the United Kingdom branch societies were organized in Scotland, Ireland, Wales, the Channel Islands, and even in Canada, as well as in England. In the United States new societies sprang into existence all up and down the Atlantic coast. In France the Society of Christian Morals was organized in 1821 on the suggestion of the president of the New York Peace Society.

The most distinguished man connected with the peace movement in this its earliest stage was William Ladd, whose widely extended, unremitting and efficient labors for a quarter of a century justly won him the title of "The American Apostle of Peace." Mr. Ladd was a graduate of Harvard University and had become wealthy as a sea-captain. At Minot, Maine, he had first associated himself with the peace cause, and in the years which followed he devoted his whole strength and fortune to the work. In 1828 when Peace Societies throughout the East had become numerous, he succeeded in bringing them together in a national association and thus was organized on the eighth of May that year, in New York City, the American Peace Society. This Society has continued its work ever since, first in New York, then in Hartford, and from 1837 on in Boston, from which city it is at the present time carrying on more vigorous and widely extended labors than at any previous period in its history. This first great wave of interest in peace continued in full vigor until the years just preceding the breaking out of the Civil War. By 1835 every county in Connecticut had a Peace Society, and there were many in other States. The work of the British Peace Society extended in like manner to all parts of the United Kingdom. Many of the leading

men of our country of that period, besides those already mentioned, were active promoters of the movement, among them John G. Whittier, William Lloyd Garrison, Adin Ballou, Charles Sumner, Elihu Burritt, Judge William Jay, Hon. Thomas S. Grimke, Professor Thomas C. Upham, Professor Amasa Walker, and others.

In this early stage of the movement the work of the Peace Societies, which had all been organized by Christian men, was carried on chiefly on the basis of the anti-Christian nature of war and its inconsistency with the principles of ethics and humanity, though, of course, the religious argument was supported by economic and other considerations.

The great war period of the nineteenth century, which extended from about the middle of the century to the close of the Franco-Prussian War in 1871, interfered greatly with the further development of peace thought and work, and in many places totally suppressed the movement. In this country most of the local Peace Societies, many of which had continued to do valuable work even after the formation of the national organization, disappeared entirely and only the American Peace Society remained, and its labors were made extremely difficult by the influences of the spirit which attended and followed the Civil War.

Soon after the close of the Civil War, beginning with the organization of the Universal Peace Union, in Philadelphia, the Peace Association of Friends in America, and the International Arbitration and Peace Association and the Workingmen's Arbitration League in England, the movement began again to reëstablish itself. The old societies took on fresh life. New societies began to be formed in France, Italy and other European countries, chiefly through the efforts of the late Hodgson Pratt of London, one of the wisest and most effective workers which the cause has ever produced. From being carried on largely on religious grounds, the movement began at that time to strengthen itself by the addition of the judicial and economic reasons for the abolition of war.

It is impossible to give in detail here the history of the multiplication of the Peace Societies and of their varied labors. At the present time there are more than one hundred general societies, with about four hundred branches, forming a network of activities in practically all of the civilized countries. Only recently a society has been formed in Buenos Ayres by Senora de Costa, now famous all over the world for her labors in securing the erection of the great peace monument, "The Christ of the Andes," on the border between the Argentine Republic and Chile, in consecration of the treaties of arbitration and disarmament between the two countries. The movement has extended itself to Australia, and to Japan, where a Japan Peace Society has been organized with more than thirty of the leading missionaries of the Empire and over two hundred eminent Japanese associated together in it for peace work in that wonderful country. Even the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Baron Hayashi, has connected himself with the society and manifested the sincerest sympathy with its work and purposes.

As a result of the work of the Peace Societies and the growth of interest in the cause, the International Peace Congress has now been meeting nearly every year since 1889. An early series of Peace Congresses was held from 1843 to 1851. The first steps toward holding a Peace Congress were taken in Boston by members of the American Peace Society, at the suggestion of the distinguished English philanthropist, Joseph Sturge, in 1841. The first Congress was held in Exeter Hall, London, in 1843, a delegation of twenty-three attending it from this country. Subsequent Congresses were attended by large delegations from different countries, and were, if possible, more impressive than those of the recent series have been. The reason for their great success was the freshness and enthusiasm of the movement in its early stages, and the participation in them of some of the most distinguished men of half a century ago: such men, for example, as Richard Cobden, Victor Hugo, Sir David Brewster, Athanase Coquerel, Emile de Laveleye, John Bright, Henry Richard, Elihu Burritt, and others.

The modern series of Peace Congresses began in 1889 at Paris at the time of the Exposition. The sixteen subsequent Congresses have been held in London, Rome, Berne, Chicago, Antwerp, Budapest, Hamburg, Glasgow, Monaco, Rouen, Boston, Lucerne, Milan, Munich, and London, where the Seventeenth International Peace Congress, just held, under the presidency of Lord Courtney, has been one of the greatest peace demonstrations ever made. These Congresses have been presided over by such eminent persons as David Dudley Field, Signor Bonghi, of the Italian Parliament, Louis Ruchonnet, twice President of the Swiss Republic, Senator Houzeau de Lehaie of Belgium, Dr. Adolph Richter of Germany, Dr. Charles Richet of the Medical Faculty of Paris, Dr. Robert Spence Watson, the most distinguished labor arbitrator in England, Hon. Robert Treat Paine of Boston, etc. They have been welcomed in the great cities where they have met by the municipal authorities and in a number of recent cases by the national governments themselves. The President of the French Republic was Honorary President of the Paris Congress of 1900. The Boston Congress in 1904 was opened, as is well known, by a notable address by the late John Hay, Secretary of State, who went to the Congress with the hearty approval of the President. The Congress at Milan in 1906 was welcomed to Italy, in the name of the King and the Government, by the Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. The recent London Congress was given a banquet by the British Government, at which the Prime Minister was the chief speaker, a part of the newly created Hospitality Fund being used in this way; and a deputation from the Congress, on which were representatives from all the countries participating, was given a most cordial reception by King Edward and the Queen.

It will thus be seen that the peace movement has gradually won its way to the governments themselves and now receives the hearty support of the municipal and national authorities wherever international peace gatherings are held.

In 1891 the first steps were taken at the Peace Congress in Rome towards the establishment of an International Peace

Bureau, the organization of which was completed the next year and its headquarters placed at Berne, Switzerland. This Bureau, under the wise and able direction of the late M. Elie Ducommun, secretary of a great Swiss railway company, has proved to be a most useful medium of intercommunication between the Peace Societies in different nations, and an efficient agent in executing, with the governments and otherwise, the resolutions adopted annually at the Peace Congresses. The Bureau is managed by a Commission now numbering thirty-five members, appointed from the most prominent peace workers in different countries. At least four of the smaller European Governments have for several years made an official annual contribution toward the expenses of the Bureau, in recognition of its most valuable services in promoting international friendship.

Among the most efficient of the peace organizations is the Interparliamentary Union, founded in 1889 by William Randal Cremer, M. P., with the aid of Frederic Passy, for the promotion, in the parliaments of the different countries, of the cause of international good-will and the settlement of international controversies by arbitration and other pacific means. Beginning with a few members of the English and French Parliaments, who had first met at Paris in 1888 to discuss the question of an arbitration treaty between Great Britain and France, the Union has grown now to a membership of about 2,500. The groups of this Union in some of the parliaments contain a majority of the members of the Lower House and, in two or three cases, of the Senate likewise. The United States group, of which the Hon. Richard Bartholdt of Missouri is President, numbers at the present time about two hundred Representatives and Senators. The meetings of this Union in the different countries are among the most notable international events of our time. The St. Louis Conference in 1904 will always be memorable in the history of the International Peace Movement. The delegates came at the invitation and as the guests of our government and were entertained at its expense, Congress having appropriated fifty thousand dollars for this purpose, the first time

in the history of the world that so much money was ever appropriated by any Government for the pure purpose of peace-making. It was on the suggestion of this Conference also, in an interview of its delegates with him, that President Roosevelt issued the first call for the Second Hague Conference.

The London meeting of the Union, two years later, which is equally famous for its conclusions, was welcomed to Westminster Hall by the British Prime Minister himself, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, in a notable speech. This Conference more than any other one influence gave direction to the program of the Second Hague Conference. The Conference of the Union which has just closed its sessions in Berlin, was welcomed to the German capital, in the name of the Emperor and the government by Prince von Buelow, the Imperial Chancellor, and was given a reception in the Schloss by the Crown Prince on behalf of the Emperor.

The groups of this distinguished body of statesmen, the most important unofficial organization of public men in the world, act as powerful bulwarks in the different parliaments of the world against war panics and war legislation, and it is safe to say that it will be very difficult hereafter for any two nations whose legislators are united in this Union and working together for the common ends of international justice and friendly relations to become embroiled in hostilities.

It is frequently supposed that the work of the Peace Societies and the Peace Congresses has been wholly theoretical and sentimental, and not practical. It is true that in the early decades of their work these societies, from the necessities of the case, had to expose the irrationality, the cruelty and the horrors of the scourge of war, and to discuss the subject of peace from the idealistic point of view. This was done by Channing, Worcester, Ladd, Burritt, Dodge, Garrison, Sumner, Jay, by Richard Cobden, John Bright, Henry Richard, and others, with a thoroughness which has left nothing to say in that direction since. But these men did not stop here. They were not merely idealists and visionaries. From the very beginning they proposed judicial substitutes for war, and they argued for the adoption of these with the same clear-

ness and thoroughness with which they had set forth the evils, injustices and wickedness of the system which they had undertaken to undermine and overthrow. Anyone who will take the pains to look up and read the petitions and memorials sent to the State Legislatures and to our National Congress by the Massachusetts and other Peace Societies as early as 1816 and 1817, and those of the American Peace Society in the years following its organization in 1828, will find that every argument for arbitration as a settled method of dealing with international disputes and for an International Congress and High Court of Nations, on which so much stress has recently been laid, was used in those early papers.

The group of essays on a Congress of Nations, by William Ladd and others, written in response to an offer of a prize of one thousand dollars made by the American Peace Society, and published in 1840, left practically nothing to be said in favor of the very institutions which the Hague Conferences are now creating. A distinguished authority on International Law has recently said that it would hardly be too much to call William Ladd, whose Essay on "A Congress and Court of Nations" is famous in the history of the literature of peace, "The Father of the Hague Conferences," so nearly did the work of the Second Hague Conference follow the lines laid down by Ladd in its work for a Permanent International Court of Arbitral Justice, for periodic meetings of the Hague Conference, and for a general treaty of obligatory arbitration. From their very beginning the Peace Congresses urged arbitration as the rational method of settling international controversies. As the movement progressed, they were the first to urge that the temporary tribunals set up to dispose of disputes as they arose should be superseded by a permanent international tribunal, whose decisions would become authoritative and thus promote the development and codification of international law, and whose systematic work would necessarily in time secure the confidence of the various governments and thus make easy the appeal to arbitral justice instead of to the sword.

Very soon after its organization the Interparliamentary Union, as well as the Peace Congresses, began to direct its chief efforts toward the establishment of a Permanent International Tribunal of Arbitration. At the meeting of the Conference in Brussels in 1895 a committee of eminent members of the Union was appointed to draft a plan for the organization of such a tribunal. Similar plans had been drawn before by individuals and by committees, as will be seen by consulting Dr. W. E. Darby's volume, entitled "International Tribunals," in which the Secretary of the London Peace Society brings together a list of all the schemes of this kind which had been devised up to the time of the First Hague Conference. One of the most important of these plans was that drafted by a committee of the New York State Bar Association. This and the plan drawn up by the committee of the Interparliamentary Union probably had more to do than any other single influence with the plan produced by the First Hague Conference for the establishment of the Permanent International Court of Arbitration. The calling of the First Hague Conference is probably also due, as much as to any one thing, to the Conference of the Interparliamentary Union at Budapest in 1896, to which the Tzar of Russia had sent an official messenger to report to him what the Conference was doing and what its chief purpose was. The report of his messenger as to the eminence of the men at the Budapest Conference and the practical nature of their work hastened the Tzar of Russia in deciding, what he had already for some time had in mind, to call a conference of the nations to deal with the problem of the rivalry of armaments and that of substitutes for war in the settling of international differences.

It is in place here to call attention to the fact that the idea of a Pan-American Congress to promote more intimate trade relations and more friendly intercourse between the republics of the Western Hemisphere, originated, not, as has been supposed, at Washington, but with the American Peace Society. For several years prior to the calling of the first Pan-American Conference by Mr. Blaine memorials were sent annually to Washington by the above-named society,

urging the desirability of such a conference of representatives of all the American states. The Pan-American Conferences have been most powerful in promoting the cause of international peace. They have resulted in the International Union of the American Republics, with its permanent and well-organized Bureau at Washington, the corner-stone of a worthy building for which was recently laid with such impressive ceremonies. It is not boasting, but simple fact, to say that nearly every great step which has so far been officially taken by the governments to bring the nations together into a more rational system of dealing with their mutual interests was first suggested by the peace organizations, and these organizations have been the first to rally to the support of the governments in every step taken by them for the organization of the world in a manner to make war more difficult, and to secure justice, in all cases of dispute, by judicial methods.

At the present time all of the peace organizations, including the Interparliamentary Union and the Mohonk Arbitration Conference, are devoting their chief energies to bring to complete realization the measures which have already been so far advanced by the deliberations and conclusions of the two Hague Conferences. They continue, of course, their propaganda in behalf of the pacific education of the peoples of the different countries. They are carrying their propaganda into universities and colleges, the public schools, chambers of commerce, boards of trade, and into every kind of religious, social and literary society through which the people in their various localities may be most effectively reached. The Mohonk Conference, one of the leading peace agencies of the world, has secured the co-operation, in its promotion of arbitration, of no less than one hundred chambers of commerce and two hundred universities and colleges; and the Intercollegiate Peace Association, founded only three years ago, has already groups in forty-seven universities and colleges.

It is most interesting to note that the practical measures urged from the beginning by the peace organizations for the establishment of universal and permanent peace are coming to realization with a rapidity which has surprised even the

most sanguine of the peacemakers. The decade which saw the first Peace Societies organized saw also the first practical application of the principle of arbitration to the settlement of controversies between sovereign and independent nations. The arbitrations between governments have likewise increased in number in about the same proportion as the Peace Societies have multiplied and extended their influence. By 1850 there had been only about thirty cases of settlement of disputes by this means, but in the last decade of the nineteenth century there were above sixty, or an average of more than six per year for the whole ten years. Since the present century opened, eight years ago, there have been more than sixty international arbitrations.

The whole number of cases of arbitration within the past hundred years now exceeds two hundred and fifty, and the number is about double that, if settlements by commissions which are not formally arbitrations be reckoned in. In all these cases, however delicate the questions involved, the award of arbitrators has always been loyally accepted and carried out. This is a record, the significance of which it is not easy fully to understand.

It is scarcely more than a dozen years since practical work for a Permanent Court of International Arbitration began. Within that time we have seen the Hague Court established, its work successfully begun and its prestige already thoroughly established throughout the world. We have seen the Central American states unite in an international court of justice, the first of its kind to be anywhere set up. In less than five years more than sixty treaties of obligatory arbitration of a limited character have been concluded between the civilized nations two and two, the most recent being the twelve treaties negotiated by Secretary Root and ratified by the United States Senate before the recent adjournment of Congress.

The Second Hague Conference carried the principle of a general treaty of obligatory arbitration a long way toward complete and universal acceptance. It also practically realized the dream of Ladd, Burritt and Sumner of a Congress

and Court of Nations, in deciding that the Hague Conference shall hereafter meet periodically, and in approving unanimously the principle of a Permanent International Court of Arbitral Justice, which only awaits an agreement among the governments, as to the method of appointing the judges, to become an established fact. Thus the ideals of the advocates of peace of the first half of the nineteenth century are becoming the realities of today. The Peace Societies, which in the beginning were either scoffed at or totally ignored are now respected and honored. The Nobel Peace Prize, founded by Mr. Alfred Nobel at the suggestion of the distinguished Austrian peace leader, the Baroness von Suttner, and given each year to the individual or society who has done the most during the year to promote international peace, is considered the highest honor even by the heads of the greatest powers. Kings and emperors and presidents of republics delight to place among their highest titles that of Peacemaker. The Peace Societies have won. The movement which they brought into being and nursed from weakness and obscurity into strength and public honor has now extended itself vastly beyond their limits, and is taking a deep and wide and powerful hold alike upon the masses of the peoples and upon statesmen and governments themselves. Its culmination in the organization and settled peace of the world and the consequent arrest and reduction of armaments is only a question of a few swift years.

Part III. Art, Ancient and Modern—Sports —Skating—A Wedding—Courtship*

By George Wharton Edwards.

CERTAINLY no one can fully appreciate the art of the great Dutch masters till he has seen the country in which they lived and painted. For theirs are pictures which have grown out of the very soil, which have been painted by men who were content to paint the portrait of their own country, artists who could "descry abundant worth in trivial commonplace." The Dutch school is the exponent of everyday life; it has no aspirations after the great and glorious, the mysterious, or the unseen. Nature, as seen in Holland, either out of doors or in the house, is the one inspiration of its art. We are in the domain of naturalism. We must not suppose, however, that the Dutch school in its realistic character, presents nothing but a brutal materialism, and never rises above the delineation of drunken boors at a village inn. There is a truthfulness in the Dutch pictures which commands admiration. It has been well said that "A dead tree by Ruisdael may touch a heart, a bull by Paul Potter may speak eloquently, a kitchen by Kalf may contain a poem." All the painters of this school confine themselves to loving, understanding, and representing Nature, each one adding his own feelings and taste—in fact, adding his individuality. This love of Nature

*Copyright 1908 by George Wharton Edwards. Parts I. and II. treating respectively the Origin and Characteristics of Holland appeared in the September and October numbers.

is specially manifested in those landscapes and sea-pieces in which the Dutch school excels. Visiting various parts of Holland, in different kinds of weather, we shall see how each painter identifies himself with the special aspect which he depicts. A barren, gloomy landscape under a leaden sky, unrelieved by a living creature, its grim monotony only broken by a waterfall or a dead tree, at once shows us Jacob Van Ruisdael, the "Melancholy Jacques," of landscape painters, who finds "tongues in trees, books in the running brooks, sermons in stones." A bright, early morning, when the sun flashes merrily on white sail and glancing streams, and the fat black and white cattle are browsing knee-deep in the rich meadows reminds us of the lover of light, Albert Cuyp. A warm afternoon, when the shadows of the fruit trees lie across the orchards, and an ox or horse or some other animal lies in the grateful shade, tells us of Paul Potter, the Raphael of modern painters, the La Fontaine of artists. An evening landscape, where amid the grazing cattle, some rustic "Meliboeus sports with Amaryllis in the shade," and presents an idyll such as a Dutch Virgil might have written recalls Adrian Van der Velde. A still pond, with the moon reflected on its surface and a few cottages nearly hidden by the dark alder and poplar trees, brings before us the painter of the night, Van der Neer. The sea-shore with high-stemmed Dutch ships sailing over the waves, is the favorite haunt of Willem Van der Velde; a river flowing on towards the horizon, and reflecting a dull gray sky, recalls Van Goyen; and if we look on a frozen canal, crowded with skaters, Isack Van Ostade stands confessed. And this is not only true of landscape and sea pictures; the everyday life of Holland is identified in its various phases with different painters of this school. Owing to the changes which time and fashion make, we shall not find in the streets the "Night Watch" of Rembrandt, or the "Banquet" of Van der Helst in the town hall, the long satin robes of Ter Borch, the plumed cavaliers of Wouverman, or the drunken peasants of Adriaan Van Ostade. And if, in passing through a Dutch town we see a young girl leaning on the old balustrade of a window, surrounded with ivy and

geraniums, we may still recognize Gerard Dou. In the peaceful interior of a Gothic house where an old woman is spinning and which is lighted by the warm rays of the sun, we see Pieter de Hooch. How did such a body of painters contrive to spring from such an unromantic and distressful period as the latter half of the sixteenth century, from so small a country, and during the time of life and death struggle known as the eighty years' war, when the fortunes of the nation reached their lowest ebb? The enigma is still unsolved. The artists followed one another in quick succession.

	Born in		Born in
Frans Hals	1580	Paul Potter	1625
Van Honthorst	1590	Jan Steen	1626
Adriaen Brouwer	1605	Jacob van Ruysdael	1628
Rembrandt	1606	De Hooch and Metsu	1630
Jan Lievens	1607	Nicholas Maes and Vermeer	1632
Adriaan van Ostade	1610	Adrian van der Velde	1635
Van der Helst	1611	Van Mieris (senior)	1635
Gerard Dou	1613	Hondecoeter	1636
Govert Flinck	1615	Van der Heyden	1637
Ferdinand Bol	1616	Hobbema	1638
Ter Borch	1617	Jan Weenix	1640
Wouverman	1619		
Albert Cuyp	1620		

The earliest dawn of art in modern Europe, as shown in fresco and distemper, is found on the southern side of the Alps; but painting in oil, the art which glows on the canvas of a Raphael, a Titian, or a Rembrandt, had its origin in the Netherlands. Most authorities from the days of Vasari have credited the discovery of oil painting to the brothers Van Eyck, who painted at the Hague, Ghent and Bruges, during the latter part of the fourteenth and the early part of the fifteenth century. But they were not the first artists of the Netherlands in point of time. For centuries the churches had been filled with paintings which seemed to have possessed considerable merit. (Davies' "Holland.") The moist climate, however, worked destruction to most of the wall productions. The churches of Italy with their wide walls and broad roof spaces afforded scope for fresco decoration which was

By the North Sea, Evening.

Fishing Boat Homeward Bound. Volendam, Holland.

A Holland Scene.

Bringing in Fagots, Winter.

By the Wharf.

Beaching the Fishing Boat.

On a Dutch Canal.

A Picturesque Costume.

Washday.

A Substantial Citizen.

North Sea Fishermen, Holland.

Type of Dutch Fisherman.

A Dutch Boer or Farmer.

Fisherwoman, Scheveningen.

Old Peasant Woman With Bible and Lamp.

Volendam Peasants in Winter Dress.

Skaters in Winter Dress. Goes.

Typical Landscape in the Interior of Holland.

Windmill, Zaandam.

wanting in the structures of a Gothic type. Hence, the Netherland paintings were of a different class, being smaller and mostly executed on wooden panels. The ground work of the panel was prepared with a thin coating of fine plaster and upon this coating were laid the colors mixed with the white of an egg or the juice of unripe figs. Oil was employed but its use was attended with great disadvantages. It was difficult to lay the colors finely with it and they took a long time to dry. For this reason it was never used in the finished part of the work but only for large masses of drapery and the like. The great objection to this process lay in the fact, not then discovered to its full extent, however, that in time the whole mass flaked off, leaving nothing but the bare surface of the panel. The Van Eyck brothers mixed some substance, probably resin, with boiled oil, and found that they had a medium which dried quickly and with which the finest and most delicate work could be accomplished. The plaster on the panel was interpenetrated with this varnish and the whole wrought so finely together that at last the surface became like enamel and it is generally next to impossible to detect the traces of the brush. (See Conway's "Early Flemish Artists," also Burger's well-known book on the "Musees de la Hollande," in which Dutch painting is most exhaustively treated.)

Of the modern school of painting numerous examples are scattered all over Holland. In Rotterdam at Boyman's Museum are some splendid examples, also Teyler's Museum at Haarlem. Examples of Mesdag, the painter of the sea, are found in nearly all cities. He paints the sea in its prevailing tones of gray. Israels paints his figures with great power in both oil and water color, and his pictures appeal to the imagination from the very simplicity of composition. They are quiet, even melancholy in sentiment, depicting scenes of poverty with great feeling. Anton Mauve lived near Muiderburg on the Zuider Zee and had a great love for sheep. There is a deliciously cool and exquisite touch in all his work. No other artist of our time has painted so sympathetically that soft, violet gray light which envelopes the landscape and the creamy dunes, crested with sparse grass tufts,

and the feathery trees of North Holland. Roelaf's landscapes should be seen and studied. Also the interior views of the Dutch churches by Bosbooms. The brothers Maris who painted an enormous number of pictures and whose paintings are in nearly every prominent collection in Europe and America have upheld upon their brush points with the above-mentioned men the glory of the modern art of the Netherlands. Pieneman was a most assiduous worker with tendencies toward the heroic school of Jordeans of Antwerp, much of whose work is to be seen in Holland, notably in the Orange Room at the Huis ten Bosch, Hague. His most ambitious work is that huge canvas at the Rijks Museum, "Battle of Waterloo." It measures twenty-six feet by eighteen feet. The subject, of course, appeals to every Dutchman, for the Prince of Orange was one of the many heroes of that day. This picture was painted in 1884.

Sir L. Alma Tadema, that most distinguished Hollander whose work is well known the world over and who lives in a veritable palace in London, England, was born at Marssum, near Leewarden. He studied under the famous painter, Baron Leys, and also worked for a considerable time with his uncle, Mesdag, the marine painter.

As we have seen then, at the close of the seventeenth century the Dutch school was practically extinct and remained so for a hundred years. As these great masters came, so they went quickly and mysteriously, and although a second Rembrandt has not appeared nor a Paul Potter, yet the Netherlands has in this last-mentioned list of modern painters an academical body, yet without its restricted forms, of whom it may well be proud.

The Netherlands, of course, is a maritime nation, a nation of sailors and fishermen. The whole coast is dotted with fishing villages which are fast losing their character, and becoming fashionable watering places. Of these Scheveningen is perhaps the chief, and still maintains a large fleet of extremely picturesque fishing boats (pinken), the cargos of which are sold by auction on the beach immediately on their arrival. I have tried in vain to understand the system of

sale, and I have often tried to describe it. The scene on such occasions is often very picturesque and highly amusing. The boats are wide and deep and open in the center of the ribs, and only decked fore and aft. On each side are huge "lee boards," for the boats are flat-bottomed. They are of one mast and carry a jib and mainsail, dyed deep, golden brown. There is no paint used on the bodies of the boats save a strip of the most delicate green near the "gun-wale." The hull is covered with a thick coating of hard oil, giving the wood a most beautiful appearance. To see the fleet from off shore come sailing in at full speed, all in line and run up on the sand, high and dry, is a sight worth traveling far to witness. The village people in their wonderful and varied costumes, the fathers, too aged to work, and the mothers and children await their coming in long lines on the beaches. Horses are hitched up and driven at full speed into the shallow water and made fast to long lines stretching from the bows of the boats which they pull shoreward, driven by loud cries and exclamations. Then the "patroons" or captains descend with dignity from their respective boats and mounting on the backs of some of the men, are conveyed ashore through the surf to the beach, where they await stolidly the unloading of the fish. The fishing is prosecuted with considerable success. Drag-nets or trawls, as they are called, are thrown overboard and hauled along the bottom of the shallow waters of the North Sea naturally scraping up everything in their way. Large numbers of skate are caught. Other vessels go still further, even as far as the north coast of Scotland after the herring and meet with great success. The men are splendid and sturdy specimens of their race, blond and blue-eyed with fine bronze skins, and some of them with great charm and openness of character. They are simple and loyal and treat the stranger with great courtesy and kindness. All the fishing boats are registered and numbered under the law and are controlled and watched over by the revenue cutters. Of course, there is much drinking among the men as is to be expected.

In the season there is great interest in horse racing. There are fine tracks at Rotterdam, at Amsterdam, at Woest-

Duin near Haarlem, at Utrecht, and at Groningen. The sport has its organ, a weekly newspaper named *Hippos*. The scene at these races is often quite gay and animated, and considerable money changes hands through the presence of large bodies of strangers from Germany and Belgium.

There are many rowing and sailing clubs, the principal one being under royal patronage and called "The Royal Dutch Rowing and Sailing Club" with headquarters at Amsterdam. The outer side of the Amstel is a favorite piece of water for the racing of small craft; while the Ij and the nearby Zuider Zee are used by larger boats. During the season several very successful regattas are held on the River Ij. The official organ which may be studied for particulars is the *Nederlandsche Sport*.

To the cycler, the signs everywhere seen through Holland bearing the word "Wielrijders" (cyclists) should be carefully regarded if followed by the word "Verboden" (forbidden), for the Dutchman is not always patient with the foreigner at any infringement of the law. The official touring club is called the "Alg. Ned. Wielrijdersbond." This is a most flourishing well-established association, and under its laws has resulted in the manifest improvement of the roadways. All through the country are seen sign and distance posts emblazoned with the familiar, winged wheel, and fixed charges are maintained at the different hotels. The sign for the hotel is "Bonds-Hotel." The distances marked on the post are in kilometers. The automobile is now a common sight through Holland. I well remember my own experience in the first machine perhaps which the "Vollendammers" had ever seen and which came up from Amsterdam purposely to deposit me at "Spanders." And the throngs of excited peasants, shaken for the nonce out of their usual apathy. The machine was a noisy red one and the petroleum gases forming in the exhaust suddenly igniting went off with the noise of a small cannon, at which the excited Mynheers promptly withdrew their hands from their capacious pockets, shut their eyes, closed their mouths and seizing their children by the shoulders or anything they could get hold of, promptly fled to a safe

distance. Me they regarded as a being miraculously endowed with unheard of courage and protected by the wing of some sweet little cherub from his seat up aloft, and as such entitled to a new distinction and respect. The chauffeur they regarded as some sort of monster removed from their ken, and when he gruffly spoke to them in their own tongue they refused to believe the evidence of their ears and only stared, and when he turned the machine with great skill in the narrow roadway by the canal and opened the throttle, vanishing noisily in a cloud of dust, they remained standing one and all spellbound and speechless, so that I had to carry my own traps to the little stairway which I mounted and along the raised pathway until I met the hospitable Spander who welcomed me with open arms. But the Dutchman is now very familiar with the automobile and regards it with a certain degree of contempt, considering it only in the light of its occupants and as furnishing him with extra gulden. Indeed the demands of the modern Dutchman upon the gulden of the inexperienced traveler are only limited by the latter's willingness to disgorge. This will be, I think, sufficient warning.

Intending visitors to Holland in the winter will do well to join one of the skating clubs to be found in every town, as the sport is most popular throughout the country. Nearly all the larger clubs are members of the Dutch Skating Association or the "Nederlandsche Schaatsenrijderspond," at Groningen. The Hollanders learned to skate from the Romans, and examples of the earliest skates which they used may be seen in the different museums. They were made of bones, smoothed and polished to a flat surface and were tied to the feet with strings. The scene on the rivers and canals in the winter is a most animated and interesting one, and the Dutch are completely transformed. No sooner does the ice bear than the whole people begin to glide and swirl to the poetry of motion. The canals then become the real streets. The sound of discordant organs from the merry-go-rounds is heard everywhere, and over all is the pungent odor of the stale grease from the "Poffertjes" and "Wafelen" booths, presided over by fat, bare-armed "Vrouwes" who make them with inde-

scribable rapidity for the ravenous peasants. The first are little round pancaky blobs, twisted, cooked in grease and covered with butter and sugar. The "Wafelen" are oblong wafers stamped thinly in an iron mould, fried and also buttered and sugared. It is etiquette to eat two dozen "Poffertjes" and two of "Wafelen" at the first order. Afterwards you may eat as many as you wish. A thin, sour beer is drunk with them, or a sickly, sweet lemonade. To eat them is one's duty. To watch the cooking is a fascination. They are made by hundreds at once over a brisk, charcoal fire. The cook busies herself in twisting the little dabs of pasty dough into the moulds, and dumping out those that are cooked. One may see pictures in the museums painted by Jan Steen, showing the operation. The peasants stand in rows before these booths, eating the dainties. They are very noisy, and while one sees but little drunkenness there is very little real revelry. The Dutch take their pleasures very stolidly, and the great evidence of the "festa" is the glare of the naptha and the loud, blaring notes of the steam organs. The Dutchman, when he wearies of skating in the winter, seats himself with his "meisje" by his side on the backs of the most wonderfully carved and brilliantly painted elephants, camels, horses, griffons, in the "Carroussels" or merry-go-rounds, and will ride for hours at a time with staring eyes and open mouth in a sort of trance, until he is pulled off forcibly by the owner of the machine and made to pay up. There are numerous side-shows on the banks with two-headed boys, giant females, dwarf ponies, etc., presided over by loud-tongued barkers, but the devotee of the sport will prefer to leave these scenes behind and glide along into the country districts over the smooth ice in company with the brilliantly costumed and bright-cheeked peasantry, arriving at the next town in time for dinner, which should be ordered in advance unless the town is a large one. The skating carnival is generally the cause of many weddings among the peasantry, and if one is so happy as to be present at one of these a most interesting experience may be enjoyed. Thursday is the peasant's day for the ceremony, for on this day the fees are very small. My Dutch friend says that on other days

it is "largely expensive" to be married. The "Koster" complains bitterly of the present economical tendency which induces so many young couples to dispense with the religious ceremony in favor of the civic marriage. My Dutch friend explains that there are several distinct decorative ceremonies at church, ranging in price from say four guilders to twenty-five and for the latter figure there are carpets and artificial flowers and trappings galore. On Thursdays, then, there are generally a number of couples at the church waiting their turn. The happy bride is brought in a high-backed "Tilbury," if in the country, the interior of which is decorated with two large mirrors in the shape of a heart lavishly trimmed with artificial white flowers, where she sits admiringly contemplated by the party. The ceremony is rattled through with great rapidity, after which the peasants depart to the nearest hotel in procession, the groom in full evening dress, and with a stolid, bored expression. He consumes vast quantities of beer, after which comes the banquet. This, it is explained, is the second ceremony, for when the preliminaries of an engagement are decided upon a betrothal dinner is held. The friends are invited to the wedding by the present of a box of sweets, or maybe a bottle of wine, popularly known as "bride's tears." On the day of the wedding the whole party imbibe generously of a certain brand of this wine, which contains small floating particles of gold-leaf. The whole party, afterwards, dance and carouse for the balance of the night. There are other strange customs pertaining to the ceremony, but perhaps they may well be left to the imagination. I was invited to one ceremony which seemed so peculiar that I cannot refrain from describing it. On this occasion I happened to meet with the Consul, an American friend, who invited me to go with him to witness a civil ceremony of marriage, which he said was most peculiar, according to our ideas. When we arrived at the house the ceremony had begun. The happy couple were standing together before the burgomaster who was empowered to perform the service. I could not understand quite what was being said, but when it was over the bride who was gorgeously arrayed with a wreath of flowers about her lace cap,

through the meshes of which shone a magnificent beaten gold head-dress with pendant diamond sparks at each side of her rosy face, and with many strings of coral beads about her throat, her figure arrayed in the Zeeland costume, shook hands first with the groom, then with the burgomaster and disappeared from view into a back room, with her girl companions. The groom drank off a large goblet of warm, sweet champagne, the temperature and quality of which I discovered when my own glass was filled. Round after round of wine was consumed and huge slabs of cake were passed about until in desperation and hidden by the crowd, in self defense I emptied my brimming goblet surreptitiously on the floor. I managed to ask the Consul, whisperingly, to explain. He said that the bridegroom was in South Africa and unable to be present, that the couple wished to be married at once, that he had sent for the bride to come to him, and as it was contrary to etiquette for the bride to go to him unmarried the bridegroom's brother acted as proxy, and that the young damsel, now a blushing bride, would sail by the steamer from Amsterdam for Natal the following morning. The usual custom of an all-night celebration was then observed. Dancing ensued to the music of a discordant band, and the constant eating and drinking among non-dancers went on. We all signed our names in a large book, and I was most hospitably urged to remain as a distinguished guest. My friend, the Consul, told me that this was not an unusual ceremony, but I had never heard of it before. There is an old saying in Holland that there are only two things a girl chooses herself—"her potatoes and her lover." They see each other at the "Kermis" and then the lad feels his heart's desire. So he puts on all his best clothes and bravely goes to her parents' house. The father and mother give him welcome, the girls smile and nudge each other, and no one refers to the purpose of his visit, though, of course, they well know why he has come. At last they all retire from the room, even the father and mother, and the two are left alone beside the fire. They speak of everything but the subject at heart. Not a word of love is uttered, but mark you, if she does not feed the fire on the

hearth and it goes down it is a hint that she does not care for him, but if she heaps piles of fuel on the fire he knows that she loves him and means to accept him for her husband, and he knows that it is all right, and from that day forward he is accepted as one of the family. The engagement is for a year or two, more or less, and they are permitted to go everywhere alone, and amuse themselves without criticism or interference on the part of the parents.

III. Rembrandt and His Pupils*

By George Breed Zug

Assistant Professor in the History of Art, University of Chicago.

IN last month's article it was pointed out that throughout Rembrandt's long career there was a steady progress in technical mastery, in his ability to paint, and above all in his knowledge of humanity and in his depth of insight. This deepening of spiritual expression was illustrated by his corporation pictures and portraits, but it marks all his works in their entire range, and is especially noticeable in his pictures from sacred story. It is an acknowledged truth of criticism that hardly any master has produced the greatest art without possessing a broad knowledge of men, and also an acquaintance with personal suffering. It is important, therefore, to notice briefly some of the events in the life of our master, to observe how he was buffeted by fortune.

It has been seen that until his twenty-sixth year Rembrandt was really occupied with learning to paint. His pictures up to 1632 present excellent realistic workmanship similar to that of other Dutch painters. It was in the year 1632 that he painted the "Anatomy Lesson," which departed from the traditions of the school and established the reputation of the painter. From 1632 to 1642, the year of the "Night Watch," is the period of our master's outward prosperity, and includes also his eight years of happy married

*Articles of this series which have already appeared are: I. "Frans Hals and the Portrait," September; II. "Rembrandt," October.

life. The great German authority, Bode, estimates that during most of this period Rembrandt was earning somewhere between $25,000 and $30,000 every year. Moreover his wife, Saskia, had brought him a fortune of at least 20,000 florins. His financial prosperity was indicative of his professional success. After he was established at Amsterdam "he was crowded with commissions. Fellow-painters, diplomats, ladies of high degree, statesmen and clergymen were eager to be painted by the greatest master of the time. Some of them had to wait months for the privilege of sitting." In view of this it is surprising to learn that the years from 1642, when his wife died, to 1656 were years of gradually declining worldly fortune and worldly esteem that ended in social and financial ruin so that in 1656 he was declared bankrupt, and died in 1660 an undischarged bankrupt, possessing nothing which he could call his own besides his clothing and his artist's materials. The illness and death of the painter of "The Syndics" and of "The Anatomy Lesson" passed almost unnoticed, the bare fact of his burial being attested by an official entry. How is this extraordinary change to be explained? What led so successful and so great a man to social and financial ruin, almost to oblivion? To reply to this question let us go back in the story of his life.

In 1634 he married Saskia van Ulyenborch, a young woman of wealthier and better family than his own. Only their fourth child, Titus, lived to manhood, to the age of twenty-seven, dying one year before his father. Rembrandt's relations with Saskia were most happy. There are numerous portraits of her in chalk, etching and in paint. One of the latter shows her as a young wife seated upon the lap of her husband while he turns his smiling face to the spectator. There seems to have been perfect comradeship between husband and wife. During the years just before and just after her death Rembrandt painted a number of pictures which seem to show his love for the domestic life. One of the most touching of these is "The Carpenter's Household" in the Louvre in which in a quiet interior a mother sits nursing her child while the grandmother, Bible in hand, leans over to view the infant

face, while the father works at his bench by the window. Not long after the death of Saskia there was introduced into his household a young peasant girl, Hendrickje Stoffels. She seems to have performed all the offices of a faithful and devoted wife, yet there is no record that she was ever married to the painter. Hendrickje was reprimanded by her church and refused the sacrament of communion, because of her relations to Rembrandt. The result seems to have been social scandal and social ostracism. Rembrandt was indefatigable in his work; after a day of painting he spent the evening in drawing or etching. He withdrew into himself, shut himself up to his work, or studied the Jews of the lower classes and the beggars and let the world pass on its way. By his habits of life, his modest nature, his sympathy with people of low condition, his financial and social condition he seems to have estranged the friends of his prosperity.

It was also in 1642 that Rembrandt painted "The Night Watch," that most puzzling of pictures, for which Captain Banning Cocq and his company cared as little as the rest of the world. Instead of painting, as before, to please his clients he now painted to please himself, and with the result that his work became more and more original in conception and treatment. But it had too much imagination, too much romance of light and shade for the Dutch public, and from this time his popularity as an artist waned. Another cause for his financial condition was the fact that throughout the years of his happy union with Saskia he was continually lavishing upon her rich gifts, jewels and the richest garments. And not only did he heap treasures upon Saskia, but in order to form a motley collection of studio properties, "he was," to quote a contemporary, "constantly visiting the places of public auctions, and there procured him ancient and castoff costumes, which seemed to him quaint and picturesque, and all these things, though they were often full of dust, he would hang up on the walls of his studio side by side with all the fine and showy objects in which he took so much delight." These objects of value or of curiosity together with various specimens of steel or iron armour and a variety of fantastic head dresses must

have formed a curious collection and are worthy of mention because of his habit of dressing his sitters in surprising costumes, and because of the light they throw on his extravagance. For he is reported as offering at once so high a price for any desired object that no other bidder would come forward, and that he then excused his action by saying that he was glad to pay the extravagant price since it "exalted the honor of his art." For the proper installation of his collections and for his studio purposes Rembrandt purchased in January, 1639, the house in the Joden Breestraat, Amsterdam, which was to be his headquarters through the main part of his life and which was in 1906 at the celebration of the tercentenary of Rembrandt's birth fitted up as a Rembrandt Museum. The price of the house was to be 13,000 florins, to be paid in installments, and in view of the considerable sums he was receiving for his pictures, the occasional legacies which fell to him and the payments from his pupils it would seem as if he might have met the payments. But only a few were made and the accumulated interest and the debt made one of the causes of his embarrassment. Rembrandt seems to have been a man of honor, but he was unpractical. He had the improvidence that so often accompanies the artistic temperament. Of all the steps to his financial ruin one can not be sure, but the general course is plain to see. A contemporary writer says that the master "was to be admired not less for his noble devotion to his art than for a kindness of heart verging on extravagance." One old writer says that he was no spendthrift; another that "when he was at work bread and cheese and a pickled herring were enough for his needs." In view of all this it seems as if Rembrandt's financial troubles came partly from circumstances beyond his control and partly from his artistic temperament.

Whether prosperous or bankrupt he seems to have been blessed with a marvelous fullness of the creative impulse. He rested from one form of creative activity by taking up another. Never content with his accomplishment; always possessed of unbounded curiosity he was a prodigious worker throughout his life. No one can say how much of his immense

output has been lost, but enough remains for the glory of a dozen less inspired creators. The work which has come down to us consists of nearly three hundred etchings, about fifteen hundred drawings and between five and six hundred paintings. In each of the mediums employed he produced not only portraits, but also classical, historical and allegorical studies and compositions of the nature of genre, of still-life, animals, landscapes and religious subjects. His etchings and drawings of landscape are among his most important creations. They show the canals and fields of Holland, the thatched cottages and tumble-down barns of his native land with a spontaneity lacking to his paintings of the same subjects. But it is as a painter of religious subjects that he stands alone. The Italian painters had proved themselves great interpreters of sacred themes. Their frescoes and the altarpieces were intended to "make beautiful the house of the Lord," and to teach the doctrines of the church to the unlettered. But all these and nearly all of the early Flemish and German religious pictures were the art of Roman Catholicism. The Madonna, the saints and the martyrs were represented perhaps more frequently than the Founder of Christianity himself. The spirit and the doctrines of Rome were constantly exhibited in line and form and color. There was only the beginning of a change in the works of Durer and Holbein. It remained for Rembrandt to prove himself the first great painter of Protestantism and the greatest of them all.

From the earliest days of his artistic activity Rembrandt was attracted to Biblical subjects. The most important of these early interpretations of the sacred writings is the painting in the Hague Museum, "Simeon in the Temple," executed in 1631, only three years later than the very first of the master's existing pictures. Under the spacious vaults of a Gothic cathedral Joseph and Mary, who have come to make their offering and present their new born child to the Lord, kneel on the pavement in the foreground, while in front of them to their right the high-priest in a glowing purple robe raises his hands in benediction, his back turned towards the spectators. The aged Simeon glancing up with a look of ecstacy and gratitude

holds in his arms the infant Christ. Now that he has beheld the salvation of the Lord he can depart in peace. Looking at this picture one is first impressed with the iridescent color of this central group,—the light blue of Mary's garment, the purple of the high priest, the gold over violet of Simeon. This jewel-like brilliancy is enhanced by the sombre garb of the beggars standing behind Mary and by the rich depths of shadow on either side and above. In many of Rembrandt's pictures it is impossible to explain the source of light, but here it is easily explained by supposing a window high up in the vaulted roof though outside the picture. Among Rembrandt's predecessors some had composed similar pictures with numerous figures in an interior of immense spaciousness, but the tenderness of the chief figure, the glory of color and the contrast of the eloquent gloomy space here reveal the individual genius of the master.

The Apochryphal story of Tobit inspired Rembrandt to its treatment in drawings, etchings and paintings. One of the most moving of these interpretations of this story is the painting in the Louvre of the year 1637, "The Angel Leaving Tobias." This illustrates, incidentally, the artist's tendency to paint pictures of limited dimensions with figures proportionate to the whole. The moment chosen by the master is that in which the angel, his mission accomplished, has revealed himself to the family at the threshold of their dwelling and takes his flight. Overcome with adoration the aged Tobit kneels with bowed head, his wife Anna drops her staff in astonishment and leans against her newly won daughter-in-law, who, her hands clasped in awe, follows the flight of the angel. The young husband, Tobias, too, expresses his wonder, though not so overcome as his elders. The painting is a masterpiece for its eloquent expression by pose and gesture of the emotions of reverence and amazement, for the rendering of the swift flight of the angel and for the dramatic use of light and shade. Most effective of all is the flashing radiance of the ascending figure, the beautiful adjustment of pale blue dress over the white tunic and the iridescent glory of the wings against the sombre clouds. In this picture as in

the "Christ at Emmaus" and in the "Good Samaritan" it is apparent how Rembrandt presents Bible characters with the aspect and garb of Dutchmen of his own time. Just as the Italians, Flemings and Germans translate the Bible stories in this same way into their own time and country so might Rembrandt be pardoned for doing. His interest is not in ecclesiastical details nor in esthetic theories, but in the emotional import and the dramatic reality of the event, and these he can best bring home to his fellowmen by the expressions and gestures of the very people whom he met on the streets of Amsterdam.

In the "Christ at Emmaus" the disciple at the left clasps his hands as he realizes the truth of the identity of Christ, the bearded man at the right stares in utter amazement, and the stolid servant seems perpexed because they do not eat. The central figure is, in one sense, only an Amsterdam Jew, but his pallid face, his sunken eyes, his blackened lips are those of one who has looked on death; they proclaim their risen Lord. Titian, Giorgione and a dozen other artists have painted Christs that are more beautiful, more godlike, but has any artist created so intimate an image of the suffering Savior? Just as the reverence and tenderness of the figures in the "Simeon in the Temple" are brought out by the expanse of gloomy temple, so here the poignancy of the dramatic moment is emphasized by the shadowed top of the picture. Rembrandt, like Velasquez in his "Maids of Honor," composed in tone as well as in light and shade. He utilized the air-filled space above as well as form and gesture to give meaning to his picture.

Another intensely human picture takes its theme from the parables of our Lord, from the story of "The Good Samaritan." Judging from the number of times Rembrandt treated this theme it seems indeed as though he was striving to translate the compassion, the infinite tenderness of God into terms of human kindness. Eugène Fromentin has written such an appreciative criticism of this work that no apology is needed for quoting him. "It is late; everything is in shadow, except one or two floating gleams which seem to change places

"Simeon in the Temple." By Rembrandt. In the Hague Museum.

"The Angel Leaving Tobias." By Rembrandt. In the Louvre, Paris.

"Christ at Emmaus." By Rembrandt. In the Louvre, Paris.

"The Good Samaritan." By Rembrandt. In the Louvre, Paris

"Christ Healing the Sick." (The Hundred Guilder Print.) Etching by Rembrandt

"A Negress." By Gerard Dou. In the Hannover Museum.

Portrait of Himself. By Gerard Dou. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.

Night School. By Gerard Dou. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam

on the canvas so capriciously are they arranged, so mobile and light; nothing disturbs the tranquil uniformity of the twilight. In this pale, thin, and groaning countenance there is nothing which is not an expression, something from the soul, from within out—look around this picture—search the great gallery —consult the most powerful and most skillful painters—and ask yourself if you perceive anywhere such inwardness in the expression of a face, emotion of such nature, such simplicity in the way of feeling, anything, in a word, so delicate in conception and expression, or which has been said in terms either more original, more exquisite, or more perfect."*

When looking at the best of the master's paintings one feels he was an artist whose genius was best expressed in paint; when studying his drawings one is sure he was born to use chalk and pencil; when enjoying his etchings the student is convinced that here indeed was the master etcher. Before Rembrandt many artists had practised engraving. Some few had begun to try the etching process. But it is the glory of Rembrandt that he developed etching to such an extent as to make it a new art, and he remains after three centuries the greatest of all etchers. "Christ Healing the Sick," one of his most famous prints, is often called "The Hundred Guilder Print," because it is believed that he received that amount for one copy,—an amount equal to forty or fifty dollars. A good example of this print was sold, however, in 1893, in London, for no less a sum than £1,750. The print is intended as an illustration of the nineteenth chapter of Matthew. On the left there is a wedge-shaped group of figures representing disciples, scribes, pharisees, and bystanders, some of whom press toward Christ. On the right a company of the maimed and halt and blind press toward the central figure for healing. Numerous as the figures are they are dominated by the majestic Christ who seems to be addressing a woman with a child in her arms, thus suggesting the words "Suffer little children to come unto me," while the phrase "and forbid them not" is suggested by the figure of Peter, who pushes the woman back.

*"The Old Masters of Belgium and Holland." E. Fromentin. Translated by Mary E. Robbins. Pages 284–287.

These figures together with those of the sufferers, and the benignancy of the Christ all emphasize again the Christian doctrine of compassion. The variety of the figures, the tender interpretation of human suffering together with a use of light and shade almost suggesting color and atmosphere make the work a triumph of Rembrandt's skill and insight.

While Rembrandt was still in Leyden he seems to have attracted pupils, for in 1628 when he was only twenty-two years of age he had three young men working in his studio. Of these three Gerard Dou, at that time a lad of but fifteen, was destined to the greatest success. For a while he was influenced by Rembrandt's peculiar treatment of light and shade, but he early developed a style marked by excessive care and painstaking elaboration of details. While Rembrandt worked more and more broadly, his pupil, who had previously been apprenticed to an engraver and glass painter, worked with increasing precision and elaboration. At first Dou devoted himself to portraits of very small size, but it is said that he wearied his sitters with his extreme care, requiring five days for the painting of a lady's hand, and three days for a broomstick "hardly bigger than your fingernail." "By this tediousness," writes Sandrart, a contemporary of Dou, "he spoiled all pleasure in sitting in such wise that a usually amiable face was distorted with vexation, melancholy, and displeasure." The result was that commissions for portraits were becoming fewer, and Dou was led to abandon that branch of art and devote himself to small subject pictures. A most successful example of his portrait art is seen in "A Negress." The turban with its aigrette, the skin with its shiny high lights, set off by the masses of white, the rich blue of the garment with its heavily jeweled clasp make a striking and harmonious ensemble. Another of his finest works and certainly the best of its class, is the "Portrait of Himself." In the original almost every hair can be seen, every line in the coat and the very threads of the curtain,—which last was enthusiastically praised by his contemporaries. Other artists had made portraits of people standing or sitting at a window. Dou took up the motive and painted many so-called "Niche-pieces."

In these he sometimes placed the grocer's wife, the dentist, the schoolmaster, or the goldsmith in a window, allowing the figure to rest its arms on the sill. Or through the opening of the window he permitted a view of a poulterer's shop, a kitchen or a nursery. Another theme associated with Dou and his followers was that of an aged hermit with long grey beard. Sometimes he is leaning out of the window, sometimes standing, but always with the same accessories—the crucifix, Bible, rosary, and skull.

Another class of subjects characteristic of Dou is the interior, often also seen through a window, with an effect of lamp or candle light. Such "Night Pieces" as they were called, probably had their origin with some earlier painters and in subjects of Bible history to which night effects seemed appropriate, as the "Birth of Christ" and "Peter in Prison," but the representation of night scenes of domestic and private life elaborately finished, and on a small scale was first adopted as a special phase of art by Gerard Dou. He was fond of painting young girls, old women, and old men gazing at a letter or a Bible by the light of a candle or a lantern. The famous "Night School" is one of the best and most elaborate of these night pieces. The schoolmaster behind the central flame is reproving the boy who seems to be leaving, while a little girl is bending over the table spelling out the words on a sheet of paper. At the left an older boy is writing on a slate by the light of a candle held by a young girl. To the right, in the background, a group of children is gathered about another table, their faces lighted by a tiny flame.

In many of Dou's pictures he introduces too many accessories and paints them with such infinite care and smooth finish that the eye wanders here and there in search of a main point of interest. There is in these pictures too much elaboration, too much display of skill for skill's sake. Such pictures bear marks of infinite patience, not of greatest art. In Dou's time minute finish was beginning to be in high favor. Rembrandt and Hals, whose broad manner of painting produces vastly greater art, died in poverty, while connoisseurs clamored for the pictures of Dou and his followers for more

than a century. The prices of his works steadily rose; "An Old Woman by Candle Light" by Dou sold in 1777 for thirty gulden and brought in 1899 six thousand four hundred and forty-three gulden. Even during the life time of Rembrandt one of his large and important pictures would bring about one third the price of a tiny painting by his pupil. It was the triumph of the obvious. Dou was without imagination, apparently without emotion; nature, living or dead, seemed to him merely studio property. His precise drawing and enamel-like finish make his pictures seem lifeless, for the careful finish of hairs and buttons and broom handle represent only the "etymology of art." Dou triumphed for only a time. Rembrandt remains supreme.

In the days of his success and fame Rembrandt had quarters in his house in the Breestraat where from time to time a score or more of pupils were accommodated. They were assigned to cabinets partitioned off from one another by canvas screens, and there they worked from the model or from still life. Nicholaes Maes and Carel Fabritius were two of these pupils who were influenced by the master's methods of color and lighting for a period and until they developed an individual style of their own, as Gerard had done before them. But most of these pupils, such as Govert Flinck, Ferdinand Bol and Jan Victors, were mere followers who did poorly what the master did supremely well. A comparison of the work of these pupils with that of the master in drawing, color, lighting, and interpretation will only bring out this greatness. There have been stories of Rembrandt's aloofness and selfishness; it was claimed that he kept to himself while working so as to preserve the secret of his art. Later writers, have, however, shown that he was most generous and kindly to his followers, helping them in all possible ways and that the only secret was his consummate art and unrivaled genius.

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In 1906 there was celebrated the Tercentenary of Rembrandt's birth, giving occasion for many magazine articles, a few of which are referred to as follows:

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SEARCH AND REVIEW QUESTIONS ON C. L. S. C. REQUIRED READINGS WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THIS MAGAZINE.

(*End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading for December, Pages* 336–396.)

Rembrandt Restoration and Color Photograph

Everybody who goes to Holland looks for at least two of Rembrandt's famous paintings, The Anatomy Lesson and The Night Watch. The Night Watch has now been given a room to itself in the Ryks Museum, at Amsterdam. The Anatomy Lesson, or The School of Anatomy, as the guide books and catalogs give the title,

is in the picture gallery, housed in what is called the Mauritshuis, at The Hague. The rooms of the Mauritshuis are overcrowded, but eleven of the sixteen works by Rembrandt contained in this collection are among the best specimens of his early manner. The Presentation in the Temple, usually called Simeon in the Temple, is here.

When we looked for The School of Anatomy last spring a big, empty frame hung where the picture ought to be seen. Inquiry developed the fact that this canvas had been taken out for restoration and was at the moment locked up and being photographed. On the strength of special interest in connection with our CHAUTAUQUAN studies and reproductions of Dutch art, permission was gained to enter the closed room, and this is the story of restoration told to us:

The canvas carrying this priceless painting had become so worn out and cracked that a German had undertaken to change the canvas without destroying the picture. He had prepared a kind of matrix on a perfectly level surface and stuck the face of the painting to it. Then he had actually rubbed off the canvas by degrees from the back of the pigment. This wearing away of the canvas by friction, as one might use an eraser, was said to have been accomplished by means of various materials and by finger touches in the final stages. Having, with infinite patience and skill, rubbed off the canvas down to the back of the pigment, a new canvas was attached to carry the painting itself again. Thereupon the matrix was removed from the face of the painting, which, cleaned and varnished, stood on the easel before our eyes as bright and apparently as perfect as if it had been painted recently instead of 276 years ago, thus preserved for centuries more to come.

In the search for photographs, chiefly to illustrate THE CHAUTAUQUAN'S Reading Journey in the Hollow Land, we found one photographer in Amsterdam who could not contain his enthusiasm over the first successful color photograph of The Night Watch. This photograph had been taken by an American, for the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York, and brought to the Dutchman's establishment for developing. According to this authority, more photographs had been taken of this particular painting than any other in Holland. As new photographic processes had been invented, unsuccessful attempts had been made to secure a photograph which would reproduce the colors of the painting itself. The plate used this time was made in France, and similar plates have been successfully used in photographing the natural colors of flowers, landscapes, etc., in the United States. The photograph taken of The Night Watch is a positive, and not a negative, from which prints can be made. The result is a transparency through which one looks to the light and sees the colors of the original painting reproduced.

—EDITOR OF THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

The German Social Policy.

By Charles Richmond Henderson

Professor of Sociology, University of Chicago.

FOR more than two centuries the princes of the various German states, moved by the consciousness of their responsibilities as rulers and by their dynastic interests, have sought to gather information about the needs of their people and to form policies in accordance with the discovered facts. They have not all been equally intelligent and humane, and some have been selfish and oppressive; some have been passionate and foolish; but out of their best traditions has grown a system of social care which challenges the admiration of the world. The finest ideals of the rulers are expressed in the closing part of Goethe's "Faust," where the dying master of lands and folk looks with satisfaction out upon fields redeemed for human habitation and upon an industrious and prosperous people tilling the soil which he has fortified against the encroaching sea. No other nation can show any such unified and scientific organization, least of all our own beloved country, which is still struggling with its atomistic and self-centered notions born of primitive conditions of frontier life where man was separated from man, and where institutions have not had time to develop. With us thought is chaotic and we have not come to accept the principle of national solidarity and obligation for the welfare of all citizens; we do not even aim at that end in any clear, straightforward fashion. Hence we need to learn all we can from Germany, though it would be foolish to copy an institution just as it exists there.

I. Perhaps we may well begin with the idea of national integrity and the consciousness of a mission to mankind. Early in the nineteenth century Fichte encouraged scholars, statesmen and common people, at the moment when they lay prostrate under the stroke of Napoleon's conquering hosts, with a philosophical discourse on national duty. He pictured the races of earth stretching out pleading hands to Germany

and begging it to fulfill its destiny, to cultivate science and philosophy, and to perform noble deeds, so that it might lead mankind out of darkness and despotism. The idealism was superb and found response. The Watch on the Rhine sounded through the ranks of youth, and a new spirit, German and Christian, filled the souls of men. Doubtless there was something of egotism, of pride, of selfishness and of aggressiveness in this purpose; but we ought to acknowledge that a nation cannot be powerful, effective and useful to the world unless it believes in itself, unless it asserts itself and feels that it has reason to live on this planet, and that its conduct has important consequences for humanity. Perhaps the first response to Fichte's appeal came from those classes which had inherited the culture of the earlier periods of history, but gradually they penetrated the groups of wage earners, descendants of freed serfs. Popular poets sang the praises of Fatherland, so that art lent charm and measure to the rising national spirit. It is not too much to say that the most abstract ideal of philosophy deepened the sense of national unity, that religion, in Luther's land, was ever a deep force even with skeptics and free thinkers, and that science was made tributary to the practical program for making the nation's life rich, healthy, and strong.

II. The leaders of the German people have realized with growing clearness that their nation could not fulfil its great destiny without economizing and augmenting the resources of the country, its soil, its mines, and its men. Jahn is a name connected with the movement for improving the physical efficiency of the people; Stein helped organize government; Hegel, Fichte, Schelling worked out a unified thought of life and its relations; eminent chemists, physicists, and biologists made German universities the centers of scientific progress and drew students from all lands; and all knowledge was made to serve practice through gifted inventors and organizers. Leaders of the nation went to work systematically, with cool blood and collected thought, to look over the whole field, to make inventories of their forces, their needs and their perils, and then calculated the cost of measures adapted to promote the national efficiency on every side. When the right

measure was found they did not wait for "evolution," but they put forth acts of will and courage to carry that measure into effect, despite poverty, controversy, war, and all other obstacles.

Let us barely glance at some of the most conspicuous of these acts of a united nation under scientific guidance. In America we are just learning the vital need for expert direction; we still sneer at "theorists"; yet Germany, leader of the world's thoughts, is leader because she has honored and rewarded her theorists, the prophets of thought.

First of all must be counted the consolidation of the twenty-six states of Germany into one Empire, as a part consequence of the Franco-Prussian war, an event for which long preparation had been made and which was consummated at the supreme moment of triumph over France. This consolidation of states made other movements possible. The organization of an army and a navy of the first order was necessary to establish and then to protect the Empire. Russia, Italy, Austria, France, Great Britain were not always to be regarded as pleased with the rise and growth of this formidable power, and safety lay in surrounding the beehive of industry with a cordon of ships, forts and soldiery to defend the stores of accumulated wealth. A rapidly growing population compelled statesmen to think of colonial expansion, regions for the foreign activities and industries of the nation. At least so they thought, and on that idea they have already invested millions and that without economic returns. Perhaps they are wrong, but certainly they are courageous. So the country is a vast camp and every young man who is physically capable must for a time receive the training of a soldier.

But the Empire asks service only for the sake of the people. The united nation can by uniform laws, valid in every state, secure equal legal rights for all citizens. Very early in the history of the Empire a criminal code was enacted, with a uniform requirement, uniform penalties, uniform procedure everywhere the imperial authority extends. Uniform civil laws regulate industry and commerce, so that each manufacturer and merchant has the same rights in all states, so far as general legislation is concerned; the separate states having

considerable control over local matters, as in the United States. Furthermore the conflicting and restricted poor laws were consolidated into one general law, so that a dependent citizen anywhere in the Empire knows what he can claim in times of extreme need. The cities have a somewhat uniform system of poor relief based on the methods adopted about the middle of the last century in the city of Elberfield, and therefore often called the "Elberfield System." Its principles are essentially those of the English and American Charity Organization Society. The imperial Supreme Court, at Leipsic, secures uniform interpretation of national laws.

III. The Social Policy of the German Empire means that system of regulations and positive legislation which has for its direct object improvement in the physical, economic, and cultural conditions of the masses of the people whose incomes are small and who are likely to be oppressed by employers and to suffer from insufficient and uncertain income. In a larger sense this term "social policy" may be taken to include all the agencies of the German nation acting to the same end through voluntary associations or the deeds of employers, churches, towns and corporations.

It is well known that the great majority of families of wage earners depend upon constant employment for their daily bread, and that few of them save for times of unemployment. Starvation is always within gunshot when labor ceases for any reason. Now the absolute right to be employed by society for wages has never yet been recognized by any modern state. At the same time employers feel it to be their duty to keep their employees busy as long as it is possible considering the condition of the market; they cannot carry on business at a loss. It is dangerous to have large bodies of hungry men idle for a long time and it is demoralizing; therefore German cities have endeavored to furnish information at lowest cost in respect to opportunities for earning wages, since workmen do not always know where labor is needed and employers do not know where workers may be found. The German government has secured a thorough report on the causes and extent of unemployment in various countries

and the best methods of mitigating its evils, as by emergency works of a public character and by the creation of insurance funds in times of active industry to pay out to those who are deprived of occupation at certain seasons of the year.

Theoretically and legally in modern countries each workman is free to make any sort of a contract he pleases with the employer; but, as a matter of fact, the employer has a great advantage in this situation since he can wait while the workman must have occupation as a condition of living, and the employer also has more experience in bargaining, more knowledge of the conditions of the market. Therefore the German law interferes where it is thought that the workman may be compelled to make a "free" contract under duress, under the compulsion of hunger. Starvation is like an invisible but very real lash in the hand of a taskmaster, and the government cannot permit the weaker man to go to earth without help.

German law does not attempt directly to prescribe the rate of wages or to establish a minimum below which an employer shall not employ a workman; but the rate of wages may be raised to some extent by collective bargaining, that is by the agreement of a large number of persons in a trade union not to work unless a certain minimum amount is offered by the employer. It does little good for a single workman to refuse to work; it is only when all or most of the employees act in concert that their demands are heeded seriously. Therefore the German law secures but regulates the right of wage earners to combine and strike. The law also seeks to make the employers pay promptly and at frequent intervals, and to prevent the payment of wages in "truck" which is below the value of the money wages promised.

Among the most interesting and useful institutions of Germany are trade tribunals which settle many disputes between employers and employees at the lowest possible cost and without tedious and expensive delays. It is true these courts do not decide the rate of wages nor fix future contracts, but they dispose of many mischievous causes of strife and quarrels in a very sensible way. In America we very much need similar agencies, for our courts are proverbially slow and

when the lawyers have been paid nothing is left for the workman, even if he has won his suit. Germany has found a better way.

Mr. I. N. Rubinow has already published in this magazine (1905) an admirable description of one of the most important factors in the German social policy, the industrial insurance laws and system of administration. It will not be repeated here; but we should carefully note the relation of this wonderful and successful piece of legislation to all other parts of the public system to which it belongs. In general terms the employers are required by law to provide a fund out of which an injured workman is legally entitled to be paid a sum sufficient to care for him in a hospital or at home during his disability, as well as for his family support; and if he dies in consequence of an accident his widow receives a modest pension until she dies or remarries and the children until they are old enough to leave school and support themselves. The sickness insurance funds which care for men for the first thirteen weeks of disability caused by illness or accident are supported by contributions from both employers and employees, the latter paying two thirds of the premiums. These insurance funds, though compulsory, are not managed by the government but by the parties concerned; the government control being carried only so far as to secure an honest and correct management.

Supplementary to the sickness and accident insurance is the pension scheme for invalids and aged persons of the low paid classes of society. Employers pay into the government fund at the same rate as the workers, and when a pension begins the national government grants an additional sum. This is just, because the nation requires every workman to yield several years of his life even in times of peace to military service, and in time of war may ask him to lay down life itself. A pension secured for old age is but small reward for such service to the country. In the United States we pay pensions to wounded soldiers; but in Germany every able bodied man is a soldier.

This system of insurance is closely related to the national policy for improving the efficiency of the people. Thus the employers, having to pay the premiums for insurance are vitally interested in devices for preventing accidents and consequent injuries and in measures for preventing disease, since disability from any cause weakens the working force, lessens the amount of production and increases the cost of insurance. For the same reason the workmen are influenced to use care in respect to accidents and sickness. The government insurance office has actually become a strong advocate of temperance and sexual morality, a preacher of virtue and prudence, because the statistics collected by the imperial bureaus show the unmistakable relation between diminished cost of insurance and good habits. Furthermore the funds accumulated especially by the invalid pension departments are ready for investments in sanatoria, hospitals and wholesome dwellings, and thus serve a double purpose. Tuberculosis has diminished more rapidly in Germany than in any other country because the medical profession has had the use of immense funds in their war upon the causes of disease. When a workman must appeal to charity he is slow to ask for medical aid; frequently he will conceal his illness from his family and even try to conceal it from himself until it is too late, simply because he will not go to a charity hospital or dispensary. In Germany a workman knows that he has a legal right, without charity, to medical advice and help, and he reports promptly when anything is wrong with his body, and so his chances of cure are greater, his time lost from work is less, and he is in much less danger of infecting others if his disease is contagious in character.

Germany like all other countries has suffered from congestion of population in cities, from crowded and unfit dwellings. Many years ago the government made extensive investigations of the facts, took advice from eminent men of science and set about improving the situation. Laws and ordinances were enacted compelling landlords to provide rooms having suitable light, ventilation and freedom from dampness; crowding was forbidden; the entire matter was

brought under the control of the police. At the same time, from motives of humanity and enlightened self-interest, employers, benevolent associations and building societies undertook to build and maintain separate or combined dwellings for the working people. The cities have also sought to provide modern methods of sewerage and drainage, to isolate cases of contagious disease and disinfect premises after such cases have appeared. As a result of all these measures the progress of public health, as evidenced by decreased mortality, has been greater in cities than in the country, in spite of unfavorable conditions.

The improvement in dwellings is indicated by the fact that in 1875, out of 1,000 dwellings 195.5 had only one heatable room and 20.7 had two heatable rooms; in 1895 these figures had fallen to 132.2 and 10.9. In Frankfort the improvement was even more marked.

IV. What have been the results of this mighty system of care for the working people of Germany? Unquestionably the first evidence of success appears in the diminished sickness and death roll of the nation. Every day that can be added to the life of a child or adult of productive years is a national gain. Length of life and vigor of body are parts of the national wealth and the basis of all happiness in family life.

The decennial average death rate before the insurance laws went into effect (1871-1880) was 28.8 per thousand; in the decade 1891-1900, the rate was only 23.5; the fall being due not to one factor alone but to the entire social policy and the increase of intelligence in the nation. The death rate in Berlin in 1831-1840 was 31.69; in 1902 it had fallen to 17.11. The death rate fell from 40.4 to 21.4 in the city of Munich between the years 1875 and 1902. Professor Ashley shows that the number of suicides in cities, an indication of the courage and hope of the people, has fallen from 31 to 24.5 per 100,000 inhabitants since 1881.

Another outcome of this social policy is the greater productive energy of the laborers and an increase in the population itself, while the population of France remains stationary. When men lose less time from illness, are more promptly

restored from disability, have better food and clothing and dwellings, when they are more hopeful and courageous, they cause the machinery of capitalists to produce more commodities and of a better quality. Within a few years Germany has moved forward from the rear to the advance line of modern industrial countries and her wares of fine quality and low price are found in all the markets of the world, her merchant ships are seen on every sea and in all the ports.

And since capital has been more prosperous and its product greater the share which could fall to labor has increased and so wages have risen everywhere. It was said by enemies of the insurance system mentioned above that the employers would reduce wages by so much as the premiums cost; and even if this had been true the condition of the workmen would have been improved; but it is not true. Wages have increased and the employers have added millions of money in the form of insurance premiums to help the sick, injured and aged in times of distress and weakness. In the year 1891, 63.7 per cent of wage earners enrolled in the pension scheme belonged to the classes having very low wages; while in 1902 only 45.9 per cent remained in these classes; the majority having risen in the scale.

While the methods of poor relief have been made more liberal, adequate and humane fewer persons have been found to depend on charity; a spirit of personal independence has grown. The number of persons in receipt of poor relief has diminished in Hamburg in spite of the rapid increase in population, and this is true of Crefeld, Mannheim and Erfurt. The relative number of orphans supported by charity has also diminished.

It may be noted that at all points improvement is manifest; the deposits in savings banks have steadily increased, although the let alone people always predict that insurance will destroy the habit of saving. The co-operative movement has prospered, and that is another form of organized and voluntary thrift; the number of members in 1864 was only 7,700, and in 1900 it had risen to 522,000. The consumption of good food has increased, cereals, sugar, rice, fruit, meat.

On the other hand the consumption of strong spirits seems to have diminished.

All these years the working people have become more intelligent, have sent their children longer to school, have often joined the ranks of professional men, have become a political power, have gained experience in administration in their insurance associations, in the army and in the industrial courts. Their political party, the Social Democracy, is the largest party in the empire and holds the balance of power; it cannot be ignored. And the very fact that the working people can now secure their rights by lawful and constitutional means diminishes resort to violence. Why should they risk life and spill blood when they have only to make speeches enough and the Reichstag will give them what is just? It is a good deal more comfortable to make eloquent speeches than to have one's head broken in a mob, and that without any real gain. Employers are more ready than formerly to treat with their employees through trade unions and to form trade agreements in order to avoid strikes and interruptions of industry.

We in America have not duly considered the meaning of one fact which is familiar to all who have given even superficial attention to the statistics of immigration. It is well known that since about 1890 the character of immigration has totally changed; that we no longer gain much from the countries of Northern Europe, and especially from Germany, whence multitudes of our best earlier immigrants came. Have we ever thought that one important cause of this change has been the new social policy of Germany and other countries of the same class? We wonder why young men are willing to submit to military service when they might come to America and escape. It is not strange; Germany offers more security of existence in times of illness, accident, invalidism and old age than any other country; and her sons will not willingly leave these advantages for the uncertainty of America. Only those who fly from oppression, poverty and hard vicissitudes are willing to expatriate themselves. In the year 1884 the emigration over sea from Germany drained away 3.22 per

cent of the vigorous people of Germany, while the rate in 1903 was only 0.62 per cent.

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R. Van der Borght. "Brundzüge der Sozialpolitik." 1904.

Kuno Frankenstein. "Der Arbeiterschutz, seine Theorie und Politik."

There are numerous magazine articles in all languages.

Famous European Short Stories*

The Elixir of Pere Gaucher

By Alphonse Daudet

"DRINK this, neighbor, and tell me what you think of it." And drop by drop, with the scrupulous care of a lapidary counting pearls, the curé of Graveson poured out two fingers of a green, golden, warm, sparkling, exquisite liqueur. It brought a flood of sunshine into my stomach.

"It is Père Gaucher's elixir, the joy and the health of our Provence," said the good man, with a triumphant air; "it is made at the convent of Prémontrés, a couple of leagues from your mill. Is it not worth all the Chartreuse in the world? And if you knew just how amusing the story of this elixir is! Just listen!"

Then, quite simply, and without seeing the joke of it, the abbé began in the dining-room of the *presbytere*, so quiet and calm, with its Way of the Cross in little pictures, and its pretty white curtains starched like surplices, a somewhat skeptical and irreverent story, of the fashion of a tale by Erasmus or D'Assoucy.

Twenty years ago the Prémontrés—or rather the White Fathers, as our Provençaux call them—had become wretchedly poor. If you had seen their house in those days, you would have pitied them.

The great wall and the Pacôme Tower were crumbling away. All about the grass-grown cloister the colonnades were falling, and the stone saints toppling over in their niches. There was not a whole window, or a door which would shut. The Rhone wind blew in the closes and in the chapels, extinguishing the candles, breaking the lead of the casements and spilling the holy water from the basins. But saddest of all

*From "Letters from My Mill," by Alphonse Daudet. Copyright, 1893, by Dodd, Mead and Co. Reprinted through the courtesy of the publishers.

was the convent belfry, as silent as an empty dove-cote; and the fathers, for lack of money to buy a bell, were obliged to ring matins on rattles made of almond wood!

Poor White Fathers! I can still see them at the Corpus Christi procession marching sadly in their patched gowns, pale, thin, fed on a diet of lemons and watermelons; and behind them the abbot, who walked with hanging head, ashamed to show his ungilded crosier and his moth-eaten mitre of white cloth. The ladies of the sisterhood wept with pity in the ranks, and the fat banner bearer sneered in their midst under his breath as he pointed at the poor monks:

"Starlings go thin when they go in flocks."

The fact is that the unfortunate White Fathers had themselves reached the point of questioning whether it would not be better for them to take their flight into the world, each to seek his food in his own direction.

Well, one day when they were debating this grave question in the chapter, word was brought to the prior that Frère Gaucher asked to be heard by the council. You must know, for your better comprehension, that this Frère Gaucher was herdsman of the convent; that is to say, he spent his days wandering from arcade to arcade in the cloister, driving before him two lean cows which sought for grass in the cracks of the pavement. The poor herdsman, who had been cared for till the age of twelve by a crazy old woman of Baux called Aunt Bégon, and who since then had been taken in by the monks, had never been able to learn anything but to drive his cattle and to say his Pater Noster; and even that he said in Provençal, for his brain was impenetrable, and his wit like a leaden dagger. For the rest he was a fervent Christian, though somewhat visionary, comfortable in his hair shirt, flagellating himself with hearty sincerity, and with such arms!

When they saw him enter the chapter-house, simple and awkward, bowing to the company with a scrape of the foot, the prior, the canons and treasurer all began to laugh. It was the effect he always produced whenever he went anywhere, by his good face with its grayish goat-like beard and

his somewhat wild eyes, and therefore Frère Gaucher was not disturbed by it.

"Reverend Fathers," said he good-humouredly, twisting his olive-wood rosary, "they are right when they say that empty hogsheads sing the loudest. By digging in my poor head, which is already so hollow, I think that I have discovered the means of getting us out of our difficulties.

"This is how. You remember Aunt Bégon, that good woman who took care of me when I was little? (May God keep her soul, the old sinner! she sang terrible songs when she had been drinking!) I must tell you then, Reverend Fathers, that Aunt Bégon knew as much about the herbs of our mountains as—yes, more than an old Corsican blackbird. Among other things she had composed toward the end of her life an incomparable elixir by mixing five or six kinds of simples which we used to go together and gather on the Alpilles. That is many years ago, but I think that with the help of Saint Augustine and the permission of our father, the abbot, I might, if I tried hard, recover the composition of this mysterious elixir. Then we would have nothing to do but to put it into bottles and to sell it somewhat dear, which would allow the community to grow rich quietly, like our brothers of La Trappe and the Grande—"

He had not time to finish. The prior had risen and fallen upon his neck. The canons clasped his hands. The treasurer, more deeply moved than any of the others, kissed with respect the tattered border of his robe. Then each one returned to his stall to deliberate, and on the spot the chapter decided that they would intrust the cows to Frère Thrasybule, in order that Frère Gaucher might give himself up wholly to the confection of his elixir.

How did the good brother succeed in recovering Aunt Bégon's receipt? At the cost of what efforts, what vigils? History does not say. Only, what is certain is that at the end of six months the elixir of the White Fathers was already very popular. In the whole county, in the whole neighborhood of Arles, there was not a *mas* nor a grange, which had not, in the depths of its cupboard, between the bottles of

mulled wine and the jars of picholine olives, a little brown earthenware flagon, sealed with the arms of Provence, with a monk in ecstasy on a silver label. Thanks to the popularity of its elixir the house of the Prémontrés grew rich very rapidly. They rebuilt the Pacôme Tower. The prior had a new mitre, the church pretty stained-glass windows; and within the fine lace of the belfry, a whole covey of bells, big and little, alighted one fine Easter morning pealing merrily.

As for Frère Gaucher, that poor lay brother whose clownishness had so amused the chapter, he was no more heard of in the convent. Henceforth they knew only the Reverend Père Gaucher, the man of intellect and of great learning, who lived completely isolated from the many and trifling occupations of the cloister, and shut himself up all day in his distillery, while thirty monks scoured the mountain in search of fragrant herbs for him. This distillery, into which no one, not even the prior, had the right to enter, was an old, abandoned chapel, at the very end of the canon's garden. The simplicity of the good fathers had made it something mysterious and terrible; and if by chance a bold and curious young monk, clinging to the climbing vines, reached the rose-window over the door he would slip down hastily, frightened by the sight of Père Gaucher, with his wizard's beard, leaning over his furnaces, hydrometer in hand, and surrounded by retorts of rose-colored sandstone, gigantic alembics, crystal worms, and a whole weird apparatus which shone as if bewitched in the red light of the windows.

At nightfall, when the last angelus rang, the door of this abode of mystery would be opened cautiously, and the reverend father would betake himself to the church for the evening service. What a reception they gave him whenever he walked through the monastery! The brothers would form a lane for him as he passed and whisper:

"Hush, he has the secret."

The treasurer would follow him and speak to him in an undertone. Amidst all this adulation the father would walk on, mopping his brow, with his broad three-cornered hat on

the back of his head like an aureole, looking about him complacently at the large courts planted with orange trees, the blue roofs on which turned new weather-cocks, and, in the dazzlingly white cloister, between the elegant, florid columns, the canons clad in new robes, filing two and two with tranquil mien.

"It is to me that they owe it all!" the reverend father would tell himself; and each time this thought would bring a rush of pride.

The poor man was well punished for it. You will see how.

Just fancy that one evening, during service, he arrived at the church in a state of extraordinary excitement,—red, out of breath, with his cowl awry, and so agitated that in taking holy-water he wet his sleeve to the elbow. They thought at first that it was embarrassment at arriving late; but when they saw him make low obeisances to the organ and the pulpit instead of to the high altar, cross the church like a whirlwind, and wander about the choir for five minutes in search of his stall, and then, when seated, bow right and left with a maudlin smile, a murmur of astonishment ran through the three naves. They whispered from breviary to breviary,—

"What is the matter with our Père Gaucher? What is the matter with our Père Gaucher?"

Twice did the prior impatiently beat upon the pavement with his crosier to command a silence. Above, in the choir, the Psalms still went on, but the responses lacked enthusiasm.

Suddenly, in the very midst of the *Ave Verum*, our Père Gaucher suddenly sits back in his stall, and sings in a mighty voice,—

Dans Paris il y a un Pere blanc,
Patatin, patatan, tarabin, taraban.

There is general consternation. Every one rises. They cry,—

"Take him out! He is possessed!"

The canons cross themselves. The abbot's crosier keeps up a terrible clatter. But Père Gaucher neither sees nor hears anything; and two lusty monks are obliged to drag him out by the small choir door, struggling like one exorcised, and continuing his patatins and his tarabans louder than ever.

The next morning at daybreak the unhappy father was on his knees in the prior's oratory, saying his *mea culpa* with a torrent of tears.

"It is the elixir, Reverend Father, it is the elixir which took me by surprise," said he, beating his breast; and seeing him so wretched and repentant, the good prior was quite moved himself.

"Come, come, Père Gaucher, calm yourself; this will all dry up like dew in the sunshine. After all, the scandal was not so serious as you think. It is true that the song was rather—hum! hum! Well we must hope that the novices did not hear it. And now tell me how it happened. It was in trying the elixir, was it not? Your hand was a little too heavy. Yes, yes, I understand. You are like brother Schwartz, who invented gunpowder,—the victim of your own invention. Tell me, my good friend, is it absolutely necessary for you to try this terrible elixir upon yourself?"

"Unfortunately, yes, Monseigneur, the test gives me the strength and degree of the alcohol; but for the finish, the velvet, I can trust only to my tongue."

"Ah, very well. But one thing more, when you taste the elixir in this way, by necessity, does it seem to you good? Do you enjoy it?"

"Alas! yes," said the unfortunate father, growing very red. "For the last two evenings it has seemed to have such a flavor, such an aroma! It is certainly the devil who has played me this trick; and therefore I am firmly resolved henceforth to use only the test. So much the worse if the liqueur is not fine enough, if it does not pearl—"

"Oh, Heaven forbid!" interrupted the prior hastily. "We must not risk displeasing our customers. All that you have to do, now that you are warned, is to be on your guard. Come,

how much do you need to make sure. Fifteen, or twenty drops, eh! Let us say twenty drops. Besides, in order to prevent accidents, I will excuse you from coming to chapel hereafter. You can read the evening service in the distillery. And now, go in peace, Reverend Father, and above all count your drops."

Alas! it was in vain that the poor father counted his drops; the devil had hold of him and never let go.

They were singular services that the distillery witnessed!

During the day all went well. The father was calm enough; he prepared his retorts and alembics, carefully selected his herbs,—all the herbs of Provence, fine, gray, serrated, saturated with perfume and sunshine. But in the evenings, when the simples were infused, and the elixir was cooling in great pans of red copper, then the poor man's martyrdom would begin.

"Seventeen—eighteen—nineteen—twenty!"

The drops would fall from the graduator into the silver goblet. The father would swallow these twenty at a gulp, almost without pleasure. It was only for the twenty-first that he longed. Oh, that one-and-twentieth drop! Then, to escape from the temptation, he would go and kneel at the other end of the laboratory and plunge into his prayers. But from the still warm liqueur there would rise a little mist laden with aromatic odours which came and played about him, and in spite of himself drew him back to the pans. The liqueur was of a fine golden green. Bending over it, with open nostrils, the father would stir it gently, and in the little flashes which shone against the emerald background he seemed to see Aunt Bégon's eyes, laughing and sparkling as they looked at him.

"Come, one drop more!"

And, from drop to drop, the unfortunate man would end by having his goblet filled to the brim. Then, at the end of his strength, he would sink into a large easy-chair and with half-closed eyes lazily sip his sin, murmuring to himself with delicious remorse.—

"Ah! I am damning myself, I am damning myself!"

The most terrible part of it was that in the depths of this diabolical elixir he would find, by some strange witchcraft, all Aunt Bégon's dreadful songs: *Ce sont trois petites commeres qui parlent de faire un banquet:* or *Bergerette de Maitre Andre s'en va-t-au bois seulette;* and invariably the famous one about the White Fathers,—Patatin, patatan.

Fancy his embarrassment the next morning when those who occupied the neighboring cells would say to him,—

"Ah, ha! Père Gaucher, so you had cicadae in your head last night when you went to sleep!"

Then there would be tears, despair, fasting, the hair shirt, and the scourge. But nothing could prevail against the demon of the elixir; and every evening, at the same hour, the poor father would be again possessed.

During this time orders were fairly showered upon the abbey like a benediction. They came from Nîmes, from Aix, from Avignon, from Marseilles. Day by day the convent took on more the air of a manufactory. There were packing brothers and labelling brothers, brothers for writing and brothers for carting. The service of God may have lost the tolling of a bell here and there; but the poor of the neighborhood lost nothing by it, I warrant you.

Well, one fine Sunday morning, while the treasurer was reading to the assembled chapter his inventory for the close of the year, and the good canons were listening with glittering eyes and smiling lips, Père Gaucher suddenly rushed into the midst of the conference crying.—

"That ends it! I will make no more. Give me back my cows—"

"What is the matter, Père Gaucher?" asked the prior, who suspected what was in the wind.

"What is the matter, Reverend Father? The matter is that I am preparing for myself a nice eternity of flames and pitchforks. The matter is that I am drinking,—that I am drinking like a fish."

"But I told you to count your drops."

"Ah, yes, count my drops! It is by goblets that I should have to count now. Yes, Reverend Father, I have reached that point; three flasks an evening. You can understand that this cannot go on. Therefore let you who like make your elixir. May the fire of God burn me if I will have anything more to do with it."

As you can fancy, the chapter was not smiling now.

"But you will ruin us, wretched man!" cried the treasurer, brandishing his ledger.

"Do you prefer to see me damned?"

Then the prior rose.

"Reverend Fathers," said he, stretching forth his white hand on which glistened the pastoral ring, "there is a way of arranging everything. It is in the evening, is it not, my dear son, that the demon tempts you?"

"Yes, regularly every evening. Consequently, now when I see evening approach, I sweat, saving your presence, from hand to foot, like Capitou's ass when he saw the saddle coming."

"Well, take heart! Every evening hereafter, at service, we will recite for you the orison of Saint Augustine, to which plenary indulgence is attached. With that, no matter what happens, you are safe. It is absolution during the sin."

"Oh! very well then; thank you, Reverend Father."

And without asking for anything more, Père Gaucher went back to his alembics as light as a swallow.

And in fact, from that time on, every evening after complines the officiating priest never failed to say,—

"Let us pray for poor Père Gaucher, who is sacrificing his soul to the interests of the community. *Oremus Domine.*"

And while over all these white cowls, prostrate in the shadow of the nave, the orison rang quivering like a little breeze over snow, at the other end of the convent, behind the flaming windows of the distillery, Père Gaucher could be heard, singing at the top of his voice,—

Dans Paris il y a un Pere Blanc,
Patatin, patatan, taraban, tarabin;
Dans Paris il y a un Pere Blanc
Qui fait danser des moinettes,
Trin, trin, trin, dans un jardin,
Qui fait danser, etc.

Here the good curé stopped, filled with terror.

"Good heavens! Suppose my parishioners should hear me!"

Admiral De Ruyter

[The following selection is taken from "Michael Adrianson de Ruyter" in "Naval Heroes of Holland," by J. A. Mets, published by the Abbey Press, New York. It tells in stirring fashion the greatest exploits of this, the greatest of naval fighters, a man who besides being a great sailor and commander was remarkable for many admirable qualities as a man.]

On the first of June, 1666, he [De Ruyter] set out with his fleet to enter upon the greatest battle of his life and the hottest contest ever fought out upon the hoary sea, one that lasted no less than four entire days. His force numbered eighty-five men-of-war, nine fireships, and four swift sailing yachts to carry orders to the different parts of the fleet when necessary. Some of the ships were the heaviest and strongest ever sent out from Holland. De Ruyter's flagship, the *Seven Provinces*, and one other carried eighty guns, while that of Cornelis Tromp was armed with eighty-two guns. Ten others carried from seventy to seventy-six, and twenty-two were each pierced for sixty guns. The English fleet, commanded by Monk, Duke of Albemarle, numbered in all about eighty-seven men-of-war and eight fireships. Several of the former, however, were far stronger, both in guns and men, than any under the command of De Ruyter. Among these was the *Sovereign*, mounting 100 guns and manned with an equipment of 700 men, and the *Royal Prince*, carrying ninety-two guns and 620 men, while the two largest of the Dutch fleet were manned respectively with only 475 and 450 sailors and marines.

It was on the eleventh of June that the curtain rose to the most terrific spectacle that ever had been witnessed on any sea. De Ruyter's fleet was lying at anchor between the North Foreland and the Flemish coast. The admiral-in-chief commanded the center, Cornelis Tromp the right, and John Evertsen the left wing. About noon Monk and his fleet hove in sight. At once De Ruyter, according to his custom, signalled the order for prayer. On every ship in the fleet the men knelt down, as the chaplains prayed for strength and courage for the living, victory for the fatherland, and pardon and grace for all who should give their lives for the right.

Then a hearty meal was served to the men, and, as a special favor, each received a glass of wine. Three ships' bells rang through the entire fleet, the trumpets gave the signal to charge, and the mighty sea-monsters rushed to the bloody fray. The conflict opened with characteristic fury on both sides and never slackened except only when the night cast its thick mantle between the combatants and compelled them to rest. This was repeated for three days. At the close of the third day the English, having lost a number of vessels while others had been utterly disabled, began to retire. The advantage so far was with De Ruyter, and if he had been free to follow it up at once, there is no doubt that Monk would have sustained a crushing defeat. But with the dawn of the fourth day another English fleet appeared of twenty-five ships under the command of Prince Rupert. Most perilous now was the prospect of the Dutch fleet. For, after all the damage sustained in the preceding three days, it was in no proper condition to renew the contest with the enemy so strongly reinforced by a fleet of fresh vessels. But De Ruyter's exalted heroism inspired his entire fleet; officers and men, from the highest to the lowest were determined to conquer or die. Once more the thousands of cannon opened their mouths and thundered their loud defiance at each other; once more countless missiles filled the air and went crashing through the oaken bulwarks, tearing through the tarred rigging and dealing death and destruction on every side. The heavens were lurid with the constant lightnings that flamed forth from the iron-jawed dogs of war, while the tumult of the elements was lost in the ceaseless roar of the guns and the cries and shrieks of the wounded and dying. The gods of sea and air seemed to have retreated into their caverns, awe-struck and mute, affrighted by the direful clashing of these human Titans. Surely no famed naval battle of Greece or Carthage ever equalled this. But ere the sun dipped under the western rim of the horizon the fortune of war was decided in favor of De Ruyter, and the Duke of Albemarle was compelled to make for his own ports with the remnants of his fleet. Twenty-three of his ships had been sunk, destroyed or captured, six thousand of his brave men had been slain, and three thousand were carried off captives. The greatest loss to England, however, was that of three of her vice-admirals, of whom Berkeley and Mings had been killed and George Ascue was a prisoner. In the surrender of the latter's ship to that of De Ruyter, after a terrific and obstinate fight, William Van der Velde, a noted marine painter of that day, bore a conspicuous part. He was on board of De Ruyter's flagship to witness the battle and thus to secure a subject for painting. He was sitting in the cross-trees, sketching the awful spectacle, when the order was given by De Ruyter to

board. Van der Velde hurried down the mast, deposited his drawing material in the nearest cabin, and rushed with the crew on board of Ascue's ship. When the desperate hand-to-hand fight was at its hottest, the artist climbed up the mizzenmast with the agility of a common seaman, hauled down the admiral's flag, slid down the shrouds, with his trophy waving in his hand, and passed it over to De Ruyter. As he did so he said, "With this I want to pay for my board and lodging." In the melee the heroic deed of the artist seems to have been unnoticed by the English officers or sailors so that they were not aware that their flag was hauled down till the daring painter had already reached his victorious countrymen.

On the part of the Dutch the loss consisted of only four ships and two thousand men all told. No wonder that the hero who began the battle with prayer was ready to pour out his heart in fervent gratitude to God for the great victory achieved. And so far was he from taking any credit to himself for what had been accomplished, that, when one of his country's poets sang of his triumph in splendid song, De Ruyter said, "If anything great has been done, the glory must be given to God alone." Moved by the same spirit the government proclaimed a universal day of thanksgiving throughout the land to give praise to the Most High for the victory so signally obtained and to implore the divine aid for the future. Seldom was such a proclamation more faithfully and fully obeyed; in every city, village, and hamlet all feet were turned toward the sanctuaries, in every house of worship the voices of the people arose in grateful homage. The evening of that day was spent in every exhibition of joy at the memorable achievement; from every steeple the gay bells gave voice to the jubilant feelings of the multitude; bonfires lighted the sky from every street and field; each town vied with the other in the splendor of its fireworks.

As adversity often brings out the nobility of a great character much more fully than prosperity, so frequently the virtues of a hero are rendered less conspicuous by victory than by defeat. Of this De Ruyter on one occasion gave a notable example. On the fourth of August of this same year, and thus less than two months after the last battle, the fleets of the rival nations met again in the same neighborhood, off the North Foreland. In this it seemed as if friend and foe conspired for the destruction of the great hero. The English bent all their energies to crush De Ruyter, and, as if to make his utter overthrow the more certain, Cornelis Tromp, who commanded the rear division of the Dutch fleet, shamefully deserted his chief. The cause of this lay not in any lack of courage on the part of Tromp, but in jealousy and envy, those twin imps of evil that had wrought so much woe in this world. Tromp had claimed that De Ruyter had been promoted over himself and others

who had a prior claim to the position of the chief command of the Dutch navies, and he now allowed his jealous spite to overcome his sense of duty and honor, and left his chief to bear the brunt of the battle almost alone. The result was that what would undoubtedly have been another brilliant victory was turned into a costly defeat. And yet it was not an ignominious one, for even in this De Ruyter crowned himself with honor and glory. To this the King of France, Louis XIV, bore witness by presenting De Ruyter, on his return home, through Count d'Estrades, Louis's envoy extraordinary at The Hague, with the order of St. Michael, the oldest in the kingdom, and with the king's own portrait on gold enamel and surrounded with three rows of diamonds. With this a letter was sent to d'Estrades from the king, in which he said that he had learned from some Frenchmen who were present with De Ruyter in this battle that the admiral had performed deeds that seemed to surpass human powers; that at one time he had sustained with only eight of his own ships the attack of twenty-two of the largest English vessels and two of their admirals, and that they regarded his retreat a greater proof of his consummate skill than if he had gained the battle. His country, too, gave full recognition of the great services he rendered even in this battle. Amsterdam presented him with a magnificent sword with a hilt of gold, and Rotterdam with a splendid silver-gilt ewer, while his praises were uttered by all honest tongues throughout the land. His fleet had been defeated, indeed, yet his surpassing courage and skill had never been more fully exhibited than in the masterly way in which he drew out of the battle and brought his ships into safe harbor. Even Hume acknowledges that the greatest victory could not have given De Ruyter greater fame than this retreat.

In June of the following year, 1667, De Ruyter had another fleet ready with which to meet the boastful foe. So rapid were the preparations of those maritime nations in those days. And now he performed a feat which never before nor since, from the time that England became a naval power, was attempted. After their victory of the previous year the English fleet wantonly burned some defenceless villages on the coast of Holland. For this outrage De Ruyter determined to punish them. But he aimed not at harmless towns; he meant to send terror to the very heart of England by sailing up the river on which her proudest and largest city was situated, and to make the power of the Republic felt even there.

On the 16th of June De Ruyter reached the English coast with a fleet of sixty war vessels and fourteen fireships. His instructions were to sail up the Thames and Medway with as many ships as those streams would allow and destroy or capture whatever English vessels should be found there, and to burn and otherwise render useless whatever royal storehouses of naval provisions and ammu-

nition might be found at Chatham. It was not until the 22d that the arrangements for the great exploit were perfected. A small squadron of the lighter vessels with some fireships were sent up the Medway to attack Fort Sheerness. This was armed with fifteen guns; but, after a bombardment of an hour and a half, its defenders deserted their stronghold and left it in possession of their daring assailants. The cannons were brought on board of De Ruyter's ships and the fort dismantled. This done, they ascended the river toward Chatham, the chief naval depot of England. Some distance up the river stood Upnor Castle, commanding the stream. Before this could be reached, however, a formidable obstacle had to be passed. A number of vessels had hastily been sunk and a massive chain, running on pulleys over floating rafts, had been stretched across the river. Above this chain lay several huge men-of-war, while both shores were planted with cannon. If ever a place had been made impassable, surely this seemed to be so. But all these obstacles only seemed to strengthen the determination of the Hollanders. As the channel allowed of only one vessel at a time to ascend the river, a volunteer was called for to lead the way and open a passage. This was eagerly answered by Captain John Van Brakel, who for some insubordination was at this time under arrest. Though his ship was one of the lightest equipped in the fleet, but a swift sailer, he begged permission to take the advance. His request was instantly granted; he was released from confinement and reinstated in command of his vessel. He at once ordered all sail to be set, passed his compatriots that were ahead of him, and, without firing a gun, went through the terrible hail of shot that rained upon him from the hostile ships and batteries, and carried his ship clear over the chain. Here he engaged the nearest English frigate, the *Unity*, gave it one terrible broadside, and boarded and captured it almost in a moment. His loss in the entire exploit was only two or three wounded. Commodore John Van den Ryn followed him in the *Pro Patria*, which dashed with such force at the chain that it broke in two and thus made a clear passage for the rest of his squadron. Of the men-of-war lying on the other side of the chain three of the largest were burned, some fled up the river, while one, the *Royal Charles*, carrying 100 guns, was captured and sent to Holland. Now the way was clear to Upnor Castle. Here matters were conducted with the same impetuosity and rapidity. The guns of the castle were silenced and the defenders of the supporting batteries were driven from their guns and put to flight. Of the four men-of-war that were lying under the guns of the castle only one escaped, the other three being given to the flames. The crews of all those seemed to have been seized with a panic, as officers and all shamefully deserted their ships. Their cowardice was offset, how-

Admiral De Ruyter, the greatest of Dutch Sea Captains (1607–1676). From the Painting by Ferdinand Bol.

The Four Days' Battle between the Dutch and English Fleets, June 11–14, 1666

ever, by at least one of the officers. The captain of the *Royal Oak*, one of those that were destroyed, a Scotchman by the name of Douglas, refused to leave his ship, though he, too, could easily have saved himself. He preferred to perish in the flames of his burning ship, saying, "It has never been known that a Douglas left his post without leave."

In the whole affair the English lost nine of their largest ships, together with a great number of dead and wounded, and all under the very eyes of Monk and Prince Rupert. De Ruyter's loss was reckoned at barely fifty men and a few boats.

As on wings of the wind the news spread to London, filling the city with consternation. The inhabitants hurriedly prepared for flight, expecting nothing less than that the Dutch fleet would sail up the river and lay their great and rich capital in ashes. De Ruyter, however, had no such intention. All that he had been sent out for had been accomplished, and, this done, he returned home.

A singular Providence seemed to favor the great enterprise both at its inception and at its close. At the start, a strong tide and favoring breeze from the east carried the fleet up the river, while, just as the feat was accomplished, the tide and wind turned and carried the daring Hollanders with equal rapidity out to the remainder of the fleet at the river's mouth. This exploit compelled Charles the Second to end the war with Holland at that time. A treaty of peace between the two countries was signed at the city of Breda on the 24th of the succeeding August.

A notable and noble tribute to the enduring fame of the great hero was given when the Emperor of Germany, on the occasion of his visit to Amsterdam in 1891, went personally to the New Church and laid a wreath on his tomb; and then kneeled down and spent some moments as if in silent prayer. In 1841 a bronze statue was erected to his honor in his native city Flushing, and was placed on an open space quite near the spot from which he made his first attempt to become a sailor. It was unveiled and solemnly dedicated in the presence of King William the Second and his suite. This was more recently removed and placed on the boulevard laid out on the old sea-wall, where it was rededicated in the presence of the queen-mother and Princess Wilhelmina, now the beloved queen of the Netherlands. The statue now faces and looks down from its lofty position upon the turbulent waters of the North Sea that he had so often braved and that so often had been witness to his triumphs.

Shortly after his death letters came from the Court of Spain addressed to De Ruyter which informed him that the Spanish King had bestowed a dukedom upon him with an annual revenue of two thousand ducats. As death had made such honors forever useless

to the great man, the title, its privileges and emoluments were conferred upon his son, Captain Engel De Ruyter, who, however, modestly requested that it might be changed to a barony.

Thus the wild and good-for-nothing boy of the Flushing rope-walk had risen to the highest place and fame in the most dangerous, the most laborious, and yet one of the most honorable professions that men can follow; had raised his family from the most obscure to the most exalted social position; had rescued his country from impending ruin and brought to her undying renown.

The surpassing excellence of the great man deserves a brief summing up of his character. Unpromising as was his boyhood, there was scarcely a virtue but adorned his manhood. Truth, honor, diligence, zeal, fidelity, courage, daring, endurance, generosity, humility, temperance, purity, patriotism, godliness—such was the galaxy of graces that ennobled him like jewelled stars in a diadem. And for this let us, as he himself ever did, magnify the grace of God which alone had made all this possible.

That the bold and daring lad should have become a mighty man of war is not so surprising; but that the uncontrollable scapegrace should have risen to such eminence as that of commander-in-chief of all the fleets of Holland; that the ignoramus should have become master of eight languages; and, still more, that the good-for-naught, as all had deemed him, should have become a Christian of exalted piety,—this is cause for wonder indeed.

We close this sketch of the great seaman with the testimony of three witnesses from among the people against whom he fought most frequently and over whose fleets he gained such brilliant victories. His English biographer says, "He was the most upright man, the most devout and pious Christian, the bravest, wisest, and most experienced leader, so good and patriotic a citizen of his country that he is justly regarded by all posterity as the ornament of his age, a great naval hero, and a most redoubtable warrior." Another English writer, quoting the words of Richter that, though many historians assert De Ruyter to be the greatest naval hero that ever lived, yet Du Quesne vanquished him, says, "To institute a comparison between the two is to compare a snuffy candle with a brilliant lamp." And when on August 27, 1816, the English and Dutch fleets under Lord Exmouth and Baron Van de Capelle had given the Dey of Algiers a severe drubbing, Lord Exmouth gave a feast on board of his flagship to the officers of the allied fleet. Exmouth drank first to the peace and prosperity of the two nations; then lifting his goblet again, he drank to the memory of De Ruyter, and after that to the memory of Nelson, adding, "I drink first to the memory of De Ruyter because he is so much older and greater than Nelson."

The lines placed under a likeness of the great admiral exhibited in every shop window in Holland after his last victory over the combined English and French fleets may fittingly complete our tribute to the man:

"Behold the hero! Holland's strong right hand,
The savior of the imperilled fatherland,
Who three times forced two kingdoms in one year
To strike the flag, and filled their lands with fear.
The fleet's true soul, the arm by which God wrought
The victory that peace and honor brought."

Student Life in Bonn: The Impressions of an American Student

By Paul Vincent Harper.

THE University of Bonn is not as well known to American students as Heidelberg or Berlin, or, indeed, many other German universities; you can easily pass two or more months there without meeting an American. In fact in the summer semester of 1908 there were only six of us registered as students—and we all fled from one another at sight because we were in Germany for German. At our one reunion on the Fourth of July, we all agreed that Bonn was an ideal place for German, for one can with exceptional ease fall in with German life in all its forms.

It is a pretty little town and very aristocratic, having in its roll of "Burger" eighty millionaires, the Kaiser's sister, and the Royal family during their student life. Bonn is a small town, but just large enough not to be monotonous. There are innumerable little things to do in the hour or half hour before mealtime when you are tired of studying German, and have no homelike corner in which to glance over a magazine. You can swim in the Rhine, or in a beautiful

tank by the University. You can walk up the famous Coblenzer Strasse looking among the shrubbery for the "Villas on the Rhine." You can get your hair cut by the same barber who cuts the Prince's hair. Or you can look at the shop windows for presents for the people at home.

An electric car runs into Cologne in forty minutes, to the opera or the theater. You can do a little sight-seeing to keep in practice, and pick out the famous places to show the ever expected and unexpected friend. Bonn itself lies on the Rhine plain just as it winds out from among the hills. The famous old Drachenfels and the Seven Mountains, the Eifel —the joy of the German tramper, are within half an hour. In short Bonn offers itself as a small university town, Cologne as a large city, and one of the best walking tour districts in Germany all in one.

The life there is the characteristic hospitable, lazy Rhineland life. Living is cheap; time is plentiful; amusements are many. The first impression you receive of the town is, "How do all the eating places do business?" And yet despite their number, in the afternoon between five and eight o'clock, it is really difficult to find a table to yourself. Little signs, "stammtisch," reserved table, stand in every corner. When this sign is a continuous, twisting combination of letters written in gold on a miniature banner that is held aloft by a bronze soldier with drawn sword, the table is reserved for a student club. They come in in groups of two or three, laughing and boisterous; colored caps on their heads, and colored bands showing across their highly buttoned vests; white canes swinging in their hands, and they drink many liters of beer. If the sign is less gaudy, a mere card, the table is reserved for a group of crooked backed old cronies, who lisp and grumble into their glasses. Or it may be for a club of business men.

I was invited to one of these latter through a high-school teacher who was giving me lessons. We sat around a corner for two and a half hours, a crowd composed of two lawyers, a very fat architect, a fatter business man, a teacher, two doctors, and an old "corps" man whose face and shaved head

were striped with red and white scars. Before I left them the lawyer had invited me to a Bowling Club on Tuesday evening; the architect, to go to a concert on Thursday; someone else, to make an all day trip with the Eifel Verein on Sunday; and the old "corps" man to see a duel. All invited me to come around "whenever I could not find anybody else to drink my beer with." But the bowling club was but an excuse to drink beer. The concert was more or less likewise. The tour in the Eifel had its goal in a big dinner and a cool bottle of Mosel wine. The duel alone seemed to be there for itself. That is the German of it.

This life in the neat little restaurants, which are invariably hung with pictures of the Kaiser and of Bismarck, is most interesting, especially the life of the students. They drink glass after glass of beer, munching "schnittchen" between the sips. The older men make the poor freshmen drink beyond themselves, and they obey as if the customs and precedents were the law of the land. They laugh, sing, and shout over the rules of the beer "comment." Every little while one of them stops his laughing, rises, swings off his cap, and holding it at arm's-length, drinks a "prosit" to an elderly acquaintance at the next table, who bobs his head and takes a sip of his beer in acknowledgment.

I entered the University as a regular student; and thereafter received all my bills, and signed my name "for statistical purposes" in all the libraries, with the title "Herr stud-phil." So matriculated, I moved along in line for three hours, signing books, giving police descriptions and family history. Then all the "Fuchse"—Freshmen—were crowded into a large parlor-like room where the Rector made a long speech, and then presented us in alphabetical order with a handshake of greeting and a student's card. This card is one of the student's most precious possessions. Through it he can draw books from the library; he is admitted to various dances and city concerts; he gets tickets at half price for the opera and state theater in Cologne; and he can come home howling and singing grand opera at any time of the early morning without

being disturbed in his revels by the police. If he really becomes too noisy, or does something else besides singing and shouting, the police do stop him, get his name and address from the card, and report him to the authorities. He is fined a few marks, but the affair is carried on by mail. The student receives a letter stating that he has been fined, and that he must pay on a certain day.

One day six students drove around the market place all in one carriage, singing and drinking beer. One of them was trying to play a cornet; but that was too much for the policeman. The students had gone beyond their privilege of singing. He tried to stop them but they drove on. Then he attempted to jump into the carriage, succeeding only, however, in climbing up on the step. Meanwhile the beer that the students were drinking had splashed over his uniform and his trousers had rubbed up against the carriage wheels. He finally managed to get the student's name as Hans Muller, which is as common as John Smith or Sam Jones. Of course, he didn't believe it; but after insisting on seeing the fellow's card, he found to the laughter of the students that it was correct. They then drove on, pushing the policeman off as he was telling them that they could sing, but they "must not blow the horn." This is called "Akademische Freiheit," the password of university life.

In general the student life in Bonn is a great deal different from that in America. In the first place, there is absolutely no university spirit. Of the nearly four thousand students in Bonn, I have seen only three hundred together at one time, in the Bismarck procession, which is, if anything, *the* student affair of the semester. There are no dormitories; and so the students rent rooms with breakfast, all through the town. If they belong to an organization of any kind, they eat together at rooms. In the evening, they either eat in their rooms or in the restaurants. Moreover, there is no fixed course of study; no required attendance. A student has to go to class only once at the beginning of the semester to get his book signed by the professor, and once at the end. There is only one examination in the whole university course,

the doctor's examination at the end. Some of the students have so much interest in their work that they wander from one university to another, working under the various men in their line. The "corps" student's interest is all taken up in his corps and he has little left for studies or university. There are no classes; so each man keeps his own record of semesters. And especially around the Kneipe table is this carefully inquired after to see who has precedence in the drinking customs. There was a crew that had several races, not, however, as a university crew, but as a rowing club. There was a football team, not representing the university, but a football Verein. The German interest in athletics is not at all small, especially if you call duelling athletics; but the spirit is all within the university. There are a hundred small factions. For the university spirit in our sense of the word, there is no room or need.

The Germans have their "grinds" and their blind "grinds" as well as we; but they have a larger middle class that should not be called "grinds" but hard students. This presents a very fine man. He has a great interest in his work that carries him, as I have mentioned, free from sentiment to many different universities. He reads very widely in national and current events. He likes Ibsen. He will give up anything to hear his favorite operas. No hill is too high for him to climb, no matter how tired he is, to get a pretty view. He will travel a hundred miles to visit an art gallery or a museum. He wants to learn from everything he comes in contact with. But he also takes his pleasure as pleasure, else he would be no true German. He either belongs to some literary circle or has a group of friends with whom he drinks coffee and plays skat every afternoon after dinner. Every Sunday he takes walking tours through the Eifel or the hills. He and his friends drink a "Bowle" together, and sometimes hold unofficial "Kneipes." When it is warm of an afternoon, two or three walk down to where the little river Sieg flows into the Rhine, strip and go in swimming in true American style. He frequently goes to one of the dance halls where only students are admitted through their cards, to keep up the tone of the

company, and dances indiscriminately or discriminately with the boarding school girls. Although he does do a great deal of work, he says, "Oh well! you can't do much when the fellows are around. You must wait till vacation." Perhaps this is the reason that they have almost six months vacation every year in Germany. This student interprets his "Akademische Freiheit" as freedom, independence of work and opinion—and he represents comparatively a large class in the university. If he has any one fault, however, it is that he becomes too independent, that he does not give proper allowance to other people's opinion, which make him sometimes rather disagreeable. But this may be a good fault.

But the type of student that is known as the German student, that is no doubt more representative, at any rate more numerous, is the one that interprets "Akademische Freiheit" as freedom of student life. These are students of the type of the "corps" student. There are three grades of student organizations: originally there were the old corps; later came the Burschenschaften and the Landsmannschaften; then the Turnerschaften, which class includes also singing clubs, rowing clubs, etc.

Among the "corps" students are the fashion plates— and the colored caps, the ribbons, and the scars offer good material for artistic workmanship. They dress in tight fitting trousers, apparently to look thin because the Crown Prince is thin. They carry white canes, and wear monocles most deftly. A face, no matter how young, without a mustache is a rarity. They never carry umbrellas because the officers do not.

The colored caps on the wall around the lecture hall are shamelessly few. Their interest is far from study. These are the men who do the duelling. The groups of patched and bandaged fellows you meet every day on the street gives witness to the fact that duelling is by no means decreasing although the Catholic Corps and certain others forbid it. Of this sort was the only form of inter-university sport I heard of, a series of duels fought between a corps in Heidelberg and one in Bonn. One corps will sometimes fight all day long,

running off fifteen or sixteen duels, almost every member having a turn at it. The Freshman, as a rule, at first receives only two colors, as a pledge. Then for a semester he is taught to fence and to carry himself as a "corps" man. Before he can carry the third color of his club, he must have fought and handled himself well in one or more duels. During this first semester's training to "carry himself as a 'corps' man" besides learning the rules of fighting and honor, he also learns to drink an enormous amount of beer. He subjects himself absolutely to a rigid set of customs; he stays up all hours of the night; he leaves all respect for his physical good behind in an attempt to harden himself to the wildest, severest sort of life. This is a criticism that you will hear just now very widespread in Germany regarding the "corps" student, although it does not apply so strongly to all of them. The duelling itself is not the serious point of objection; but it is the reckless life that accompanies the duelling. And yet there is something about the old traditions and jovial spirit of these corps that make you favor them.

This life naturally does not last indefinitely. A young student "lives" his two or three semesters, and then he either tires of it and stops; or goes on and becomes a total wreck. The wreck, a common sight, leads the laziest of lives. He sleeps till late. At noon he goes to an outdoor restaurant for dinner; sits there all afternoon half asleep over his beer; eats his supper without moving; and wakes up in time for a Kneipe at night. The changing of universities, however, saves a great many. When conditions have made it impossible to lead a reasonably quiet life, the student can go to another university and begin all over again.

This is a general view of the student life in Bonn. Whether it is, all in all, better than our American student life is hard to decide. You must experience both and then—"there is much to be said on both sides."

The German Kaiser

III. A French View of the Kaiser

By Maurice Leudet

THE Emperor of Germany was pleased recently to revive the famous saying of Napoleon III., "Empire is Peace." And William II. heaps kindnesses on us. In the course of his interviews with M. Jules Simon in Berlin, we are told that he did not spare his eulogiums on France, and the expression of his desire to live in harmony with her. Her arts, her literature, interest him. He professes to have a high idea of our army, and pays homage to the exceptional valor of our generals. He could find words full of emotion, I remember, when the Marshals Canrobert and MacMahon died. In words he is so sympathetic that a certain number of Frenchmen award him praises which are not given to him in his own country. A German who lives in Paris—an amiable and skeptical philosopher—said to me not long ago:

"I think it is his fine feathers which attract your countrymen when they praise our Emperor to the skies. He is in truth a soldier who looks well on horseback in the middle of his army. He adores uniform, and it becomes him marvelously. This is what takes the fancy of the crowd. With us, where, in spite of the victories we have won, we have less enthusiasm for these outward gifts of the Sovereign, the despotic ways of William II. increase every day the already large number of malcontents, whose votes are given only to those who dare to declare that they would have an end made of the existing regime—in other words, to the socialists. These malcontents are far from being disciples of Karl Marx; many of them are totally ignorant of the first principles of the author of 'Capital'; but they see in the Liebknect and the Bebel the necessary instruments for making a breach in that power which the Emperor more and more desires to make absolute.

I am not afraid to tell you that the middle classes in Germany who in no way hold 'subversive ideas,' as the fashionable phrase is in government spheres in Germany—are no less hostile at heart to the Emperor than the working classes; the elections of next year will give you striking proof of this."

The correspondent of a great journal of the other side of the Rhine cried, in the middle of a conversation which we were having on the subject of William II.:

"Our Emperor? . . . But he is the Emperor of the French . . . and we make you a present of him with the greatest pleasure."

The fact is that in Germany William II. is not so popular as we imagine here that he is.

Here he is discussed, but his ready wit, his originality, his quick-wittedness, interest even those who do not see in him a rival of Frederick II. or even of William I.

The *Times* of Monday, June 21, 1897, published a sensational correspondence of M. de Blowitz. It reported the declarations made by the Emperor William to a "very important person."

Before publishing them here I took pains to ascertain their authenticity. The correspondent of the *Times*, when questioned by me, replied thus:

"I assure you absolutely of the authenticity of the interview. The conversation took place with a Frenchman of very high position, and was faithfully reported. It was on the occasion of a private dinner and lasted a long time. The interlocutor was not a political man, but a savant, an open-minded man and one knowing much of all Europe.

"I may as well add that the interview was quoted by all the German papers, and that no German official or officials have denied it."

Here are not the exact words of the *Times*, but the sense of those used by M. de Blowitz.

"William II. expressed his opinion on three points. 'I do not know,' he said—and really it is a quaint way of looking at things—'I do not know why the French are so angry with me. It was not I who brought about the existing state of things. It is a heritage I found, and I do not think that there can exist a being in the world, capable of thinking, who can reproach me for having accepted it. I have done nothing to aggravate a situation which was handed on to me, and of which, up to the present, I have contented myself with being a faithful and respectful guardian.

" 'I think that even those who make the most outcry, if I were to ask them what they would advise me to do, could not advise me to do what they must feel themselves incapable of doing if they were in my place. And all the same they dislike me as if I had done it all myself, and they make all my efforts to ameliorate a situation, of which the amelioration would have the happiest results for both countries, useless.

" 'I have endeavored to create a common action for the two countries on commercial and industrial grounds, and on economic grounds. But some have replied to me with the prejudiced determination of incapable men, and others with the disposition to sympathy of intelligent men, but who have neither the courage nor the necessary authority to bring things to a happy conclusion. In these circumstances one must let things take their course, and depend upon time to bring about solutions which one cannot foresee. . . .

" 'Yes, I have a great respect and admiration for the Pope Leo XIII., but it is his German partisans who prevent me from doing anything for him. Our Catholics are much more absolute than French Catholics. They only recognize one thing: the reëstablishment of the temporal power in all its former extent, so that it would be impossible for me either by will or deed to restore this former state of things; they would not only not accept any concessions from me, but they would accuse me of acknowledging what they call "spoliations," even while they accepted the concessions of those who

had despoiled them. . . . No, I do not see any present prospect of rivalries, and I am sure that everybody desires most sincerely to avoid them. But I am not so sure as to the future of Europe. I foresee a double danger for her. I am not afraid for her of the "yellow peril"; recent events have repelled that for some time to come. Nor do I fear the "red peril," because that rests on Utopia and on spoliation, and because the whole civilized world is resolved to unite in its efforts to combat it, and protect itself against its destructive action. But I fear on one side the danger of a certain invading and continued extension with which Europe is threatened by one of her races, armed with all the resources which civilization puts and will put at the service of her ambition; and on the other side I fear the intervention of the New World, which is beginning to develop appetites from which it has been up to now free, and which will before long wish to interfere in the affairs of the Old World and to meet half way the ambitions, always waking, which are stirring around us. This is what I fear, and this is why for my part I do not allow myself to be carried away by ambitious desires of troubling Europe, which would be only too readily attributed to me under the pretext of wishing to prevent me from troubling her.' "

One can see that it is always France which is the object of his liveliest desires. He wishes to draw her into his orbit. If he has not already succeeded, he counts on time, which often does bring about forgetfulness of injuries. He needs a France reconciled to Germany to preserve definitely for him the heritage which was left him, and also—and it is here that his ambition shows itself—to check a "certain invading and continued extension with which Europe is threatened by one of her races, armed with all the resources which civilization puts and will put at the service of her ambition." When this interview was published, there was but one voice in naming the enemy.

This enemy is evidently England. Nevertheless, Mr. de Blowitz assured me that the distinguished savant had declared that by this William II. had meant Russia. Without wishing

to throw any doubt on the perspicuity of the savant, we may be permitted, until further orders, to believe that the Emperor of Germany was alluding to England. William the Second's sentiments for that country have been long known. He showed them in a startling manner, in his famous telegram to the President of the Transvaal, Kruger, after the failure of the Jameson raid. Prince Bismarck succeeded in getting us into touble with Italy by letting us go to Tunis, and by having cleverly manoeuvred to back the colonial enterprises of France, particularly in Tonquin, in order to render our continental policy ineffective. William II. is obviously endeavoring now to embroil us with England. He is not ignorant that everywhere we are a little in rivalry with England, and that the establishment of England in Egypt, which seems to be permanent in spite of the most positive and most solemn assurances of the Queen's ministers, is a great difficulty, the greatest which separates us from our neighbors across the Channel. Then he puts before us in official journals the great advantage it would be to France to accept loyally the Treaty of Frankfort; it would secure to us, if needed, the effectual support of Germany in expelling the English from Egypt. William II. forgets to tell us that Germany has colonial ambitions; that she is not afraid of France on this ground, but that she is held in check in Africa by England, with whom she has already found herself in serious conflict; and that in reality, in encouraging us against Great Britain, she is seeking the friendship of France to serve German interests.

To those who have lived any time in Germany—and this is my case—it is absolutely certain that the German people would not permit him to abandon what his grandfather conquered. The victories of 1870 have left, deeply rooted in the masses, sentiments which are rocked as it were to the tune of the recital of our defeats and the glories of Germany.

Quite lately, just after the celebration of the alliance, when the Tsar and the President of the Republic had spoken of a peace based on right and equity, William, in a speech of

August 31st, at a State dinner, in the presence of the heir to the Duchy of Baden, uttered these words:

"Today's review does honor to the commander of the Eighth Corps. It depends on us to preserve in its integrity the work of the great Emperor and to defend it against all foreign claims and influence. I hope that every general, in all that concerns him, will endeavor to attain this end."

Here is a new and decisive answer, I think, to those who still delude themselves and believe in the possibility of a great dramatic scene, when William II. will reënter Paris and restore to us the keys of Strasbourg and Metz.

* * * *

William II., who in certain circles has been persistently eulogized for political wisdom and all the qualities of a statesman, has up to the present seen his designs singularly frustrated. Since he disembarrassed himself of Bismarck's tutelage, five principal facts have been produced.

1. Germany has lost her place as a preponderant power in Europe. Russia has taken her place.

2. France has entered into an alliance with Russia.

3. The Triple Alliance has almost ceased to exist.

4. England has been made hostile to Germany.

5. The links between Russia and Germany have been snapped and have not been reunited.

The great English review, *The Fortnightly*, brought forward these five points in a clever study on "The Foreign Policy of the Emperor of Germany" which appeared in one of its numbers. Let us only hope that William II. will not contrive to renew the relation of his country with Russia, and drag all the continental powers into a conflict with England! Unless the Emperor of Germany succeeds in the master stroke,

which would have its effect on France, it will not be long before the Prussian power and the German power succumb before the Franco-Russian alliance, with the moral or effective support of "Greater Britain."

The Fire at Chautauqua

At three o'clock on the morning of October 19, fire was discovered in the Colonnade building at Chautauqua, which housed, besides the postoffice and stores of the town, the Chautauqua Print Shop. Here the November number of the magazine was nearing completion.

After an unavailing struggle of four hours the entire building and contents were consumed. The loss is estimated at $100,000, of which about half falls on the Institution and half on the tenants of the shops, etc. The Institution has $25,000 insurance.

The magazine now in your hands is a reprint, made in Buffalo, seventy-five miles distant, of the edition destroyed. Slightly altered appearance and lateness of issue will be accounted for by this statement of facts. It is expected that the December number will be mailed on time.

The Colonnade will be rebuilt before next summer.

The German Emperor and Empress

The Aula Christi, Chautauqua, N. Y. The dedication of which has been assured by the raising of a Fund of $10,000.

The Vesper Hour*

First Service in the Aula Christi, Chautauqua, New York, August 17, 1908.

Conducted by Chancellor John H. Vincent.

THE first service in the Aula Christi, Hall of the Christ, at Chautauqua, N. Y., was conducted in the yet unfinished building one evening last summer. The beautiful edifice, the completion of which has been assured by the raising of a fund of $10,000, will henceforth be the home and center of religious teaching at Chautauqua. The initial service, held shortly after the needed funds had been secured, marks the beginning of what promises to be a long period of the highest usefulness and significance in the religious life of Chautauqua.

A report of the service and Chancellor Vincent's brief statement of the purpose of the Hall of the Christ will be of interest to many Chautauquans. The Chancellor, in opening the service, said:

"It is very important that we should conduct this service promptly, and I call upon you all in the name of the Christ whom we serve, and in whose honor this place is to be dedicated, to engage in this service thoughtfully, reverently, earnestly; to sing these hymns and to join in this Responsive Service with devout spirit.

" 'Come, let us tune our loftiest songs,
And raise to Christ our joyful strains.' "

After the Responsive Reading, in which probably two thousand persons participated, Bishop Vincent said:

"The crown of the work at Chautauqua in architecture is the *Aula Christi*, 'The Hall of the Christ.' Here on the

*The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent, continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

heights, yonder the sloping sides of the hill, and beyond the Lake, beyond the Amphitheater, there (pointing) the Hall of Philosophy; here we place as our tribute to the source of our civilization and the ground of our hope for salvation, this beautiful temple. We have sought to do the best that architecture could do. We have been limited by the limitations, the necessary limitations, put upon us. We have good hope that in the years to come this building may be filled with reminders of the life, the character, the mission and the work of Jesus Christ in human history, and especially in our Christian civilization.

"It is the object of this Hall to promote profound reverence among worshippers. The American people, especially we Protestant Americans, are very much in danger of losing the benefit of reverent approach in our public service to the invisible God whom we worship. It behooves us to have a place of quiet, of reverence, for retreat, for meditation, for instruction in the things that relate to Jesus Christ, the author and finisher of our faith.

"We propose here, through classes for little children and older children and young people and adults and scholars, to study thoroughly the story of the life, the mission, the character of Jesus Christ as set forth in the Holy Scriptures. We propose here to study Christ in history, as he has affected the civilization of the ages. We propose here to study Christ as we raise the problems, social and political, of our civilization, which is a Christian civilization. And it is amazing to think how many problems would be solved in our social life, in our political life, if we were to make Jesus Christ the standard of character and of conduct, and the innermost source of character.

"It is to fulfil this mission that this Hall has been erected. But especially it is the mission of this Hall to foster the spiritual tone and habit; that we may think more closely and pray more reverently, and believe more implicitly, study the Word of God more thoroughly, and in our personal experience come to understand the mystery of his indwelling as he takes possession of the personality. We mourn when we think,—the best of you mourn when you think,—how lofty the ideals He

has breathed into your souls, and how low the standard of daily attainment and of daily conduct.

"It is hoped that in this Hall, through its suggestions, through its instructions, through the impressions that it makes, we shall come to covet a deeper spiritual life and be drawn personally nearer to Him who has the secret of everything that is good in human nature, that is good for human nature; where the Spirit of God lays hold of the consenting soul and the promise is fulfilled 'Whatsoever ye shall ask the Father in My name, He shall give it unto you.'

"It is a very easy thing for us when we study Christ, the mystery of Christ, to generalize in mere dogmatic statements and discussions. It is very easy when we study Christ for us to melt into moods of tenderness and emotional excitement for the time, and then to have a reaction come leaving us stranded, cold and selfish as we were before. God grant that through the years that are to come in this beautiful and sacred temple many an aching heart may find comfort in the living Christ; many a burdened heart have the assurance that sin is forgiven; many a perplexed heart find in Jesus Christ a guide amidst all the perplexities and anxieties of mortal life.

"I wish that in the spiritual heavens now encompassing us there might at this twilight hour, at this the dedication, or the beginning of the dedication, of this Hall,—I wish that here and now every one of us, from the man who speaks, from the men and women who sing, to the people who hear and who unite in singing,—I wish that tonight that we might personally say: 'O Living Christ, with all our unworthiness, with all our sins and unbelief, with all the failures of our ideals, with all the breaking of our vows, we turn to Thee and surrender ourselves to Thee for Thy guidance and Thy possession.'

"In the silence of this twilight hour, will you make this surrender, each soul as in the presence of the Most High. Whatever your theological views may be, do not wait to conform them to some other person's theological views. Take the highest that you have now and act on it, with a holy resolution; and lift a prayer to the infinite God whom you recognize and ask this grace.

"Oh, it would be a beautiful thing if, tonight, there might among the thousand or more people assembled here vows of surrender be made that would never be forgotten. Let us pray.

"O God, our Father, who hast given to us Thy Son, Jesus Christ, and commanded us to worship him, from whom with the Son comes the Holy Ghost, that mystic Trinity, Three in One, Wisdom, Love and Power; by whose energies human souls may be transformed, evil habits broken, sin pardoned, peace taking the place of unrest, joy the place of fear and despair,—do Thou grant unto us at this time the abundant blessing of Thy grace, that we who are here present may surrender ourselves anew to Thy service.

"Bless us as parents that we may feel our responsibility and train our children to honor Him in whose name this house is built. Bless us as families that we may every day illustrate the Gospel which we profess. Bless us as citizens that we may be loyal to the nation and do all that we can for the building up of our race and the making of the world wiser and better. Take selfishness out of our hearts that leads us to think only of ourselves and care only for ourselves. And do Thou grant unto us at this time a new awakened sense of our social responsibility, that we may not only seek to be good neighbors, and not only be received into the heaven that is yonder, but able in our measure to transform the present into a heaven while we live on earth.

"For all Thy goodness which has guided us, and for all the gifts of Thy servants who have contributed to this good cause, we give Thee thanks. We pray for Thy continued grace in the continuance of our work, and crown it, O Lord, with the gift of Thy blessed Spirit. And in this calm and quiet evening hour, breathe upon every one of us and say, 'Receive the Holy Ghost.'

"Now unto Him who is able to do exceeding abundantly, above all that we ask or think, according to the power that worketh in us; unto Him be glory in the church, by Jesus Christ, throughout all ages, world without end. And may the grace of our Lord Jesus Christ be with you all. Amen."

A Thanksgiving Litany

By Caroline Sheldon

For purple vintage, garnered harvest golden,
Blessing of plenty in basket, field, and store,
For bounties new and mercies known and olden,
We thank Thee, Lord.

For peace that dwells serene along our borders,
For beckoning hope that gilds our pathway o'er,
For the Hand that guides, the Love that ever orders,
We praise Thee, Lord.

For wanderings long and far, for safe returning,
For sound of kindred speech, for loves of home,
For holy lives, fair beacons steady burning,
We bless Thee, Lord.

For all of art's and nature's varied beauty,
For glowing window, towering spire, and dome,
For lettered leisure and stern call of duty,
We praise Thee, Lord.

And for the kindly work of pain and sorrow
In depths, before unguessed, of heart and soul,
While waiting tranquilly the unknown morrow,
We thank Thee, Lord.

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THE SIFTING PROCESS.

Our studies for this month deal with a number of great men. Some of them are living today. If we find pleasure in analyzing the character of a man whose work is finished there is an even greater fascination in watching the career of one who is still playing his part. Such men as the Emperors of Austria and Germany and the King of Italy represent three strikingly different types, all of whom are confronted with similar problems. It will be worth our while to study carefully the personalities of these men while we watch the daily progress of events. The game of statecraft in modern Europe is often productive of surprises as the characters of rulers reveal themselves in all their human strength and weakness. As everyday people have to be molded by the discipline of small affairs, so it is interesting to note in the unfolding of history before our eyes how the men who lead have to take their share of the sifting process.

At the recent exercises of Opening Day, October 1st, at Chautauqua, referred to elsewhere, Mr. F. C. Bray, Managing Editor of The Chautauqua Press, gave a brief sketch of some

of his experiences in Europe last spring which was especially pertinent in connection with the readings of our current Modern European year:

"I have been on a Reading Journey in a peculiar sense, having taken a Reading Journey through the Reading Course ahead of you for the coming year. Indeed, in reading for the course I have probably taken more journeys than any one of you would be willing to take. In addition to that, I had the privilege of taking an actual journey, picking up, for example, more than half the illustrations in the current magazine. In working over the seven subjects—'Foundations of Modern Europe,' 'Seen in Germany,' 'Man and the Earth,' 'Studies in European Literature,' 'The Friendship of Nations,' 'A Reading Journey in Holland,' and 'Dutch Art and Artists,' one finds himself impressed with two facts,—first, the way in which the development of modern Europe is tied up with Napoleon; and, next, the predominance of Germany and the dominating figure of the Kaiser, the man whom Germans consider Heaven-sent and the French think crazy. In Bavaria it is difficult to find a post-card with the Kaiser's picture, for Bavarians call themselves Bavarians, not Germans—so varied in sentiment is the congeries of states that make up the German Empire."

Mr. Bray spoke of some European sights suggested by his topic—Napoleon's tomb, the Bastile with its single mighty tomb covering four hundred Revolutionists, one of the sewers of Paris flowing under bars beneath, the women street sweepers and women switch tenders in Munich, etc. A series of articles in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will describe the significant movement among German women.

Holland is changing rapidly from its old traditions of cleanliness and picturesqueness. Amsterdam is dirty, the Hague is clean, but everywhere the decorum which we have always attributed to the movements of the Dutch is changing to "hustle" just as it has changed in Japan. An American photographer representing the Metropolitan Museum had just been successful in taking a photograph in colors of the "Night Watch" by the auto-chrome process.

"We who look upon our age as given over to commercialism may well take heart from a study of the art of Holland and of Venice. In Dutch art some of the most superb examples are portrait groups of the Guilds; in Venice some of the finest portraits are of those Doges who were princes of commerce. In the Palace of the Doges the largest painting in the world portrays the commercial supremacy of Venice. It made me feel that our time and country may in time produce something quite as worth while in art."

CHAUTAUQUANS IN CHILE.

Several members of this year's graduating class of 1908 in the far East were heard from last year, and it required only a report from the Southern Hemisphere to give to the class membership the complete sense of having girdled the globe.

This link was supplied in the summer by a letter from an individual reader in Santiago alluded to in the September Round Table, and at this time by the following letter from another part of Chile, the two pictures accompanying it giving on the one hand an idea of the external environment of our Chautauqua readers in that country and on the other a suggestion of their daily occupation, which might find its counterpart in many North American cities. The reference to winter, however, in this letter written in June is a reminder of the leagues that stretch between us. It is dated Concepcion College, Concepcion, Chile, and comes in reply to a letter from the Round Table Editor:

Your last letter was a very long time in reaching my southern home and this is really the first half hour I could set apart for its answer. Do you know that I have told the door girl, the teacher-on-charge, the servants and my daughter to allow no one to call me during this morning hour while I speak with you. Then I have taken the key and resolutely locked myself away from any chance interruption. We have a holiday today—Corpus Cristi—but very few of the devoted here who will answer the summons of the cathedral or convent bell know why this is a "special" day. It is raining gently and steadily, not at all like our last cloud burst which flooded the "patios," overflowed the water gullies and beat in at every crevice, until in some rooms it seemed to rain as hard as in the open air. Thus far we have had a mild winter and we congratulate each other that our hands are still free from chilblains and our great coats are hanging in the closets.

How much I have wished to be at the Chautauqua Assembly this summer. Will you please extend my most cordial greetings to the Class of 1908? My reading is all faithfully done, save the magazines which have not yet reached me. The May number arrived yesterday. Have you other circles yet farther away in point of correspondence?

Our college has grown rapidly in recent years. We have built a new annex and now are filled again to our utmost capacity. That means an entire enrollment of about 200. We have 90 boarders and 90 day pupils in actual attendance. I enclose a few pictures. The smaller one shows our gymnasium at a recent rehearsal. One of the larger ones gives you a good idea of the corner property which we wish very much to buy. Two of the college buildings are hidden.

I organized our Concepcion Chautauqua Circle with much enthusiasm. Two teachers, two pupil teachers, one American lady, six of our Alumni who live in the city, my daughter and myself—thirteen, I think, was the number who paid their dues, received the books and began the work. Then a Literary Society in the American College joined with us and for a few months everything was promising. Then one by one the members found difficulties in attending the meetings. (A Chilean girl never goes out unaccompanied.) Sickness caused the disbanding of the Literary

Concepcion College, Concepcion, Chile. (Two story building on the right.)

Gymnasium at a Rehearsal. Concepcion College, Chile.

Society. The members at a distance filled their time with nearer duties and so at the end of the first year my daughter and I were the only ones who had the courage to continue. Many have read our books. Others have asked about the Course. Some are even now talking of beginning again. The effort has not been in vain. But the fact remains that our Circle is reduced to two. We have enjoyed the entire course very much. Our reports will be forwarded soon.

I purpose to continue the reading. Please have a set of books sent for 1909. I still hope that my daughter may spend the next year in Syracuse and she may not be able to do more than the work required there. The idea of systematic reading is in harmony with the idea of systematic living. Fully one half of one's time and strength is lost when there is no plan. I shall recommend the Chautauqua Reading Course to every busy worker whom I know. I have been able to compass the entire course in moments which many, nay, even most people, would lose.

My husband is now in the States. He went as a delegate to the General Conference in Baltimore and we hope he will visit Chautauqua. He has read fully one half of the prescribed magazine reading and most of the books. My own is a busy life, for I am not only Preceptress but housekeeper, house mother, teacher, bookkeeper and, in my husband's absence, general manager. This will explain why my letter goes to you so late. Do not forget to give my greetings—our greetings I should say—

Members of the C. L. S. C. of Urbana, Ill., at the Class Day Exercises of 1908. (See page 467.)

to the Class of 1908. We live in a land of song and romance but in the midst are plainer seen the darkness and degradation of a slowly dying faith.

Yours most cordially,

IDA A. T. ARMS.

THE CLASS OF 1909.

The Class of 1909 at Chautauqua has shown from the outset even more than the ordinary amount of class enthusiasm. The attendance has been large every year and the class has had frequent cosy councils at which they have discussed the many aspects of their various Chautauqua experiences. All these things have tended to give them a deep interest in the members of the class at large. They have accepted their stewardship very loyally, and ever since they selected the name of "Dante" they have acted up to their motto, "On and fear not." Perchance distant readers of 1909 have many times been cheered quite unconsciously through the friendly

Tennyson. From the etching by Paul Rajon.

thought waves which have come from their Chautauqua classmates. The approach of graduation gives to this year a particular importance for every member of the Dante class. Three years of experience have educated its members in a knowledge of themselves. Let every member, whether well up with the reading or lagging a bit behind, take courage with this new year and make a record worthy of the class.

THE C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We study the Word and the Works of God."
"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."

THE 1908 CLASS PORTRAIT OF TENNYSON.

With many people the enjoyment of etchings is an acquired taste. They find their way readily in a gallery of paintings but an exhibit of etchings has small attractions for them. Yet this branch of art lends itself to the most beautiful and satisfying effects, and it has attracted some of the men of greatest artistic genius, notably Rembrandt, who has left many examples of his skill.

The committee of one, of the Tennyson Class, Miss Una Jones, who was appointed to select a portrait of the poet for the class room at Chautauqua, was by special good fortune able to secure a fine etching by the distinguished French etcher, M. Rajon, which we here reproduce in half-tone. Even this imperfect medium shows not only the strong, expressive lines which give vigor to the portrait but the delicate rendering of light and shade which the artist has handled with rare skill.

SOME DUTCH PROVERBS.

Many cows, much trouble.
Men can bear all things, except good days.
The best pilots are ashore.
Velvet and silk are strange herbs: they blow the fire out of the kitchen.
It is easy to make a good fire of another man's turf.
God giveth the fowls meat, but they must fly for it.
He is wise that is always wise.
The pastor and sexton seldom agree.
No crown cureth headache.
There is nothing that sooner dryeth up than a tear.
When old dogs bark it is time to look out.
Ride on, but look about.
It's bad catching hares with drums.
Before thou trust a friend eat a peck of salt with him.
When everyone sweeps before his own house, then are the streets clean.
High trees give more shadow than fruit.
It happeneth sometimes that a good seaman falls overboard.

Circles will find much pleasure and benefit in occasional digests of important magazine articles relating to world conditions. Where the circle has no library a small tax per member of five cents a week would easily create a fund from which an occasional magazine could be purchased to the great enjoyment of the circle.

C. L. S. C. Round Table

C. L S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—May 18.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR DECEMBER.

FIRST WEEK—NOVEMBER 26–DECEMBER 3.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Part III. The Story of the Peace Movement to page 344.
In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter VIII. The Reaction.

SECOND WEEK—DECEMBER 3–10.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Part III. The Story of the Peace Movement, concluded.
In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter IX. The Revolutions, Chapter X. The Unity of Italy.

THIRD WEEK—DECEMBER 10–17.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Dutch Art and Artists." Chapter III. Rembrandt and His Pupils.
In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter XI. The Unity of Germany and Epilogue.

FOURTH WEEK—DECEMBER 17–24.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "A Reading Journey in the Hollow Land." Chapter III. Art, Ancient and Modern Sports, Skating, etc. A Wedding. Courtship.

FIFTH WEEK—DECEMBER 23–31—VACATION.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

Roll Call: Reports on paragraphs in Highways and Byways and other current news.
Review of Chapter VIII in "Foundations of Modern Europe," The Reaction. Let each member bring a statement of the chief points in the chapter.
Reading: Selection from "Personal Recollections of Liszt," *Century Magazine*, 65:866, April, 1903.
Oral Report: "The Fight Against Dueling in Europe." (See *Fortnightly Review* for August, 1908; abridged in *Review of Reviews* for October.)
Character Sketch: The present Emperor of Austria. (See articles in *Review of Reviews*, 36:552–5, Nov., '07; *Living Age*, 255:707–15, Dec. 21, '07, also *Outlook*, 87:477–81, Nov. 2, '07.

Oral Report: "Austria's Dark Horse, Francis Ferdinand." (See *Fortnightly Review*, 88:904-18, Dec., '07; same article in *Living Age*, 256:195-216, Jan. 25, '08.)

SECOND WEEK.

Review of Chapter IX on The Revolutions.

Roll Call: Answers to the question: "What is the outlook for the 'Friendship of Nations' in view of the Balkan situation?"

Review of chapter in "Foundations of Modern Europe" on "The Unity of Italy."

Paper: Dramatic features of the Italian struggle for Independence. (See "Makers of Modern Italy," Marriott. This will be found also as one section of "Men and Cities of Italy.")

Roll Call: Quotations from Mrs. Browning referring to the Italian struggle for freedom.

Character Sketch: Cavour. (See above "Makers of Modern Italy.")

Book Review: "Italy Today" by Bolton King. A very valuable book showing how Italy has progressed.

Oral Reports: Side Lights on Italy Today. (See current articles relating to Italy, "Rome's Jewish Mayor," and "The Making of Modern Rome" in *Review of Reviews*, 38:484-6, Oct., 1908.)

THIRD WEEK.

Map Review: Germany after the Congress of Vienna and Germany of today.

Review and Discussion of Chapter XI in "Foundations of Modern Europe."

Character Study: Bismarck. (See a small volume by Monroe Smith, "Bismarck and German Unity," also article in *Atlantic Monthly*, 82:560, by Kuno Francke, "Bismarck as a National Type." References in Poole's index will suggest other articles if desired.)

Reading: Selections from "Anecdotal character sketch of Bismarck" by C. Lowe (*Review of Reviews*, 18:291), or from article on Student Life in Germany in this magazine.

Roll Call: Items of interest relating to the Kaiser and Germany as affected by the recent Balkan troubles.

Review of article in this magazine on "The Social Policy of Germany," by C. R. Henderson.

Study of article on Rembrandt and his pupils, members being assigned special pictures on which to report. In "Old Dutch and Flemish Masters" there is some very interesting critical comment by Mr. J. C. Van Dyke on Bol, Dou, Maes and Flinck. These chapters were first published in the *Century Magazine*, 25:563; 27:412 and 933.

FOURTH WEEK.

Paper: Holland of Rembrandt's time from the death of William of Orange to the death of John DeWitt.

Roll Call: Dutch Proverbs. (See Round Table.)

Reading: Selection from account of De Ruyter in the Library Shelf of this magazine.

Oral Report: The Position of Woman in Holland. (See chapter with this title in "Dutch Life in Town and Country.")

Reading: Selection from articles on Dutch Fisheries and Skating and Sleighing in "Holland Described by Great Writers," Singleton, and "Holland and its People," DeAmicis.

Discussion: Germany and the Future of Holland. (Each member should bring all available material. See articles "Future of the Netherlands," *Living Age*, 251: 253-5, Oct. 27, '06; "Does Germany really aim to absorb Holland?" *Review of Reviews*, 31:735, June, '05; "German Designs on Holland and Belgium," *North American*, 84:22-8, Jan. 4, '07.

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special programs for Graduate Circles and Clubs specializing upon the two Dutch Series. (A copy of Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs.)

FIRST WEEK.

Brief Review of Dutch History to 1648. (See outline on page 462.)

Paper: The Netherlands under John De Witt. (See Histories of Holland, Larned's "History for Ready Reference," etc.)

Roll Call: Dutch proverbs. (See Round Table.)

Oral Report: Dordrecht. (See "Holland Described by Great Writers," Singleton. "Brave Little Holland," Griffis. "A Wanderer in Holland," Lucas, and Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland.")

Reading: Selections from Chapter on The Professional Classes in "Dutch Life in Town and Country."

Discussion: Germany and the Future of Holland. Each member should bring all available material. (See articles: "Future of the Netherlands," *Living Age*, 251:253-5, Oct. 27, '06; "Does Germany really aim to absorb Holland?" *Review of Reviews*, 31:735, June, '05: "German Designs on Holland and Belgium," *North American*, 184:22-8, Jan. 4, '07.

SECOND WEEK.

Review of current article in the Reading Journey.

Paper: The Position of Women in Holland. (See Chapter with this title in "Dutch Life in Town and Country." Also THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 21-435.)

Book Review with reading of Selections: "The Cloister and the Hearth." Charles Reade. (Times of Erasmus.)

Oral Reports: "Country Life in Holland," "Dutch Fisheries," "Skating and Sleighing." See "Holland Described by Great Writers," Singleton, and "Holland and its People," De Amicis.

Roll Call: Specimens of the Dutch Language. (See Baedeker.)

THIRD WEEK.

Oral Report: The Holland of Rembrandt's time.

Points of View of the Rembrandt Tercentenary: (See bibliography following Mr. Zug's article.)

(Four persons should be appointed to report on the magazine articles referred to and any others that may be available.)

Paper: Rembrandt as an etcher. (See bibliography.)

Oral Report: Some of the principal subjects chosen by Rembrandt. (See list of his principal paintings in the "Masters in Art" Monograph on Rembrandt.)

Discussion of article on Rembrandt and his religious pictures, the pictures being assigned to different members and the comments of various critics studied in connection with them.

FOURTH WEEK.

Paper: Rembrandt as teacher. (See lives of Rembrandt and of his pupils.)
Character Sketches: Ferdinand Bol and Gerard Dou. (See "Old Dutch and Flemish Masters" by T. Cole and J. C. Van Dyke.) These studies were first published in the *Century Magazine*, Bol, in 27:933; Dou, in 25:656, March, 1894.
Critical Studies of Rembrandt's pupils, Bol, Flinck, Maes and Dou. (See *Century Magazine*, 27:412 for Flinck; 25:563, Feb. 1894, for Maes.)
Book Review: "Story of Art Throughout the Ages." Solomon Reinach.

REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON DECEMBER READINGS.

THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS, CHAPTER III. THE STORY OF THE PEACE MOVEMENT.

1. What organizations show the importance attained by the Peace Movement? 2. How long has this movement been in progress? 3. What conditions led to it? 4. What ideas looking toward universal peace were put forth in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries? 5. How did the Peace Movement take shape in the early part of the nineteenth century? 6. Describe the organization of the first Peace Society. 7. What English society was formed the next year? 8. Describe the work of William Ladd. 9. How did our Civil War affect the progress of the movement? 10. When and in what way did the cause of peace take on new life? 11. What is the general status of the Peace Movement? 12. What was the character of the international congresses held from 1843 to 1851? 13. In what cities have the modern peace congresses been held? 14. Show how various governments have co-operated in these congresses. 15. Describe the origin and work of the International Peace Bureau. 16. What is the purpose of the Interparliamentary Union? 17. What important results followed its meetings in 1904 and 1906? 18. How early was the idea of a High Court of Nations emphasized? 19. Show how far reaching was the work of William Ladd. 20. Show how plans for a permanent International Tribunal of Arbitration developed. 21. What influences resulted in the establishment of the Bureau of American Republics? 22. How are the various peace organizations striving to render effective the work of the two Hague conferences? 23. Show how rapidly the practice of arbitration has increased. 24. How has the idea of a Permanent International Court of Arbitration progressed? 25. What was the origin of the Nobel peace prize?

A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW LAND. CHAPTER III.

1. What are the great characteristics of Dutch Art? 2. What artists are associated with certain types of landscape or of domestic scenes? 3. How long a period covers the work of some twenty of these artists? 4. What artists are credited with the discovery of oil painting? 5. Why did so much of the work of their predecessors perish? 6. Who are the leaders of the Modern Dutch School and what are some of their distinctive traits? 7. Describe the fishing fleet of Scheveningen. 8. What are some of the chief sports of Holland? 9. What festivities accompany the skating

period? 10. Describe a Dutch wedding. 11. What is the Dutch custom of courting?

DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS. III. REMBRANDT AND HIS PUPILS.

1. What evidences have we of Rembrandt's prosperity during the first half of his career? 2. What was the nature of his home life? 3. What changes came with the death of Saskia? 4. What extravagances are attributed to him? 5. What marvelous creative energy is shown by his works which have come down to us? 6. How did the sacred paintings of Italy differ from those of Rembrandt? 7. Describe his painting of "Simeon in the Temple." 8. What artistic qualities does he show in "The Angel Leaving Tobias?" 9. How does his picture of "Christ at Emmaus" compare with paintings of Christ by other artists? 10. What is true of Rembrandt's work as an etcher? 11. What peculiarities of style did Gerard Dou develop? 12. What are some of the best specimens of his portrait work? 13. How was he fond of treating interiors? 14. How did his pictures compare in popularity with those of Rembrandt? 15. What were Dou's limitations? 16. Who were some of Rembrandt's best known pupils? 17. How do their works compare with the master's?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What important books on peace were written by Hugo Grotius? 2. What connection had Lord Selden of England with the first of these two books? 3. What interest was shown in the work of Grotius by the Swedish general, Gustavus? 4. What international treaty abolished the practice of privateering? 5. When was the practice of plundering a defeated foe formally abandoned?

1. From what is the quotation referring to Amaryllis taken? 2. What historic sea fight took place near Scheveningen? 3. How do the flags of Holland and Belgium differ? 4. What do the Dutch call their country?

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON NOVEMBER READINGS.

1. Journalist and novelist. Born in Utica, N. Y., 1856, died in London, 1898 Graduated from Hamilton College. Editor of Utica *Observer* and Albany *Evening Journal*. From 1884 until his death was London correspondent of the New York *Times*. In his fiction he aimed to portray the peculiar features of American life. Among his best known works are: "Seth's Brother's Wife," "The Lawton Girl," "In the Valley," and "The Damnation of Theron Ware." 2. Servia, Roumania, Bulgaria, European Turkey, Montenegro, Bosnia, and Herzegovina. 3. After the Greco-Turkish War of 1897. The powers appointed a High Commissioner in 1898. The country freed from Turkish tribute though still under the suzerainty of the Porte. 4. In the eastern part of European Turkey, northwest of Constantinople. 5. Mulai Hafid, half brother of his predecessor. 6. Those situated upon or having control of a given shore.

1. A pseudonym of Charles Godfrey Leland who wrote burlesque poems in Pennsylvania Dutch. He lived in London from 1869-80 and gave much time to the study of the language and customs of the gypsies. His translations of Heine's lyrics are among the best. 2. Dutch navy: 8 battleships, 7 cruisers, 1 monitor, 1 protected gunboat, 15 modern and 4 old torpedo boats. Germany: 24 battleships, 7 battleships coast defence, 39 cruisers, 69 destroyers, 47 torpedo boats, 1 submarine.

United States navy: 25 battleships, 28 cruisers, 10 monitors, 3 scouts, 16 destroyers, 33 torpedo boats, 12 submarines. 3. Michel Adriaanzoon de Ruyter. Born at Flushing, Netherlands, in 1607; died at Syracuse, Italy, in 1676. A famous Dutch admiral. He served against the Spaniards in 1641 and against the English in 1652–4. Became vice-admiral after the death of Tromp in 1653. Ennobled by the King of Denmark at the close of the war with Sweden, in 1660, De Ruyter having commanded the Dutch fleet. Became Admiral in Chief in the struggles with the English and French fleets in the '60's and '70's and was mortally wounded in a battle against the French off Messina in 1676. 4. Eendracht maakt Macht (Unity makes strength). 5. It was formed by the union of several smaller trading companies in March, 1602. Received from the state a monopoly of the trade on the further side of the Straits of Magellan and the Cape of Good Hope, including the right to make treaties and alliances in the name of the States-General, to establish factories and forts and to employ soldiers. It held the chief centers of commerce in the Indian Archipelago and had flourishing colonies in South Africa. Dissolved and territories transferred to the State in 1795. 6. Boyman's Museum, at Rotterdam; Mauritshuis, Steengracht Gallery, Municipal Museum, and Mesdag Museum, at the Hague; Town Hall, Haarlem; Six collection, Ryks Museum, and Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

GLOSSARY.

The following is a selected list of words occurring in the required book for this month. See paragraph under "glossary," page 306, of the October CHAUTAUQUAN for explanation of typographical arrangement.

Bosnia	*bos*-ne-ah
Beethoven	*bay*-to-ven
Budapest	*boo*-dah-pest
Bukharest	boo-ka-*rest*
Bukovina	boo-ka-*vee*-nah
Cavour	kah-*voor*
Custozza	koos-*toat*-sah
Chopin	sho-*paN*
Chauteaubriand	shah-to-bree-*oN*
Caucasus	*kaw*-ka-sus
Castanos	kahs-*tahn*-yoas
Herzegovina	hehrt-se-go-*ve*-nah
Jeanne d'Arc	zhan-*dark*
Laveleye	lahv-*lay*
Liszt	list
Montmirail	moN-mee-*ray*
Magyar	*mo*-dyor
Mahmud	mah-*mood*
Monaco	*mon*-ah-ko
Oudinot	oo-de-*no*
Orsini	or-*se*-ne
Quatre-Bras	kahtr-*brah*
Rheims	reems
Rouen	roo-*oN*
Sadowa	*sah*-do-vah
Wagram	*vah*-grahm
Walewska	vah-*lev*-aka

REVIEW OUTLINE OF DUTCH HISTORY.

Romans, Celts, Teutons, Franks, Vandals, and other races held sway in the early centuries of the Netherlands.

Saxons and Frisians who crossed the Channel to England, sent back later Christian missionaries to their Dutch neighbors. First Christian Church at Utrecht about 720 A. D. Pipin, king of the Franks, conquers the Dutch Frisians in 692. St. Boniface brings the Frisian Christians under the sway of Rome. Is murdered at Dokkum by a pagan and patriotic reaction.

800 *A. D. During the time of Charlemagne* the Netherlands were under his control. Following him the Feudal System which prevailed took form in various Dukedoms, Countships and Bishoprics. In Frisia democratic tendencies prevailed even in feudal times and the land belonged to the people. The development of commerce led to the growth of towns. Seven feudal states ultimately arose: Holland North and South, Zeeland, Utrecht, Overyssel, Drenthe, Groningen and Friesland.

1096 *to* 1292. *The Crusades* brought Dutchmen into contact with the Orient. William, Count of Holland, with twelve ships, aided in capturing Alcazar and in reducing the siege of Damietta in Egypt. They brought home new ideas. William granted a charter to Middleburg in 1217. This document shows the fixed status of the Dutch language and the independent spirit of the people. The Crusades resulted in increase of luxury, freedom of slaves, growth of towns and manufactures, windmills, church spires, cupolas, and bells, improvement of dykes, revival of the lost art of brick-making, exacting of privileges from feudal masters and growth of religious independence.

1351–1500. *The Cods and Hooks:* A feud which started between the aristocratic classes under William of Holland and the popular elements under his mother Margaret, sister of William I. It continued until 1433 when Jacqueline of Bavaria surrendered to her cousin Philip of Burgundy, who united all the provinces of the Netherlands under one rule in 1433. Order of the Golden Fleece established. Only twenty-five great nobles, kings or emperors eligible. The weaving industry became the basis of the Netherlands' prosperity. Philip died in 1467. His son, Charles the Bold, added to his father's tyrannies and at his death in 1477 the Netherlands stood for their rights. Mary of Burgundy, Charles' daughter, met the first Congress at Ghent. The Great Privilege, the Dutch Magna Charta, granted. 1477 also the first Bible translated into Dutch. Mary married Maximilian of Austria in that same year and the Netherlands came under the Hapsburgs. Maximilian as regent of his son Philip ignored "The Great Privilege," sided with the "Cods" and crushed the people. Charles the Fifth, son of Philip, born in 1500. The most famous of the Hapsburg rulers.

The sixteenth Century: Social Progress: Development of bulb industries from all over the world. Botanical gardens. Progress in agriculture and stock raising. Many practical inventions, "Dutch oven," etc. Introduction of flax, linen manufactories, dyeing, weaving, bleaching, etc. Lace-making becomes a fine art. *Intellectual movements:* Influence of the printing press and the Bible in Dutch. Next to Italy Holland led in number of schools. Gerhart Groote (1340) born at Deventer had

founded the "Brotherhood of the Common Life" taught and encouraged the multiplication of manuscripts and schools. His followers spread the new ideas of the Renaissance and developed public schools. *Religious Movements:* Erasmus born in Rotterdam 1467, educated in Holland, studied Greek at University of Paris, lived in England, visited Rome. Wrote on his return to England "Praise of Folly," exposing weaknesses of the Church. Made a correct text of the Greek testament and laid the foundation for the work of other scholars. The Anabaptists exerted strong influence in favor of freedom of conscience and right of private judgment. They were the beginners of the Reformation in Holland, followed later by Lutherans and Calvinists. Charles V. attempted to crush the Reformation in Holland, and taxed the people for his wars. The Inquisition. Charles abdicated at Brussels in 1555. William of Orange stadtholder of three provinces, twenty-two years of age. Philip II., son of Charles, twenty-eight. War between France and Spain followed. The Netherlands sent troops. The victory of St. Quentin in 1557 under Egmont and Hoorn brought fame to the Dutch troops. William of Orange, as hostage of the Court of France, learned of the plan of Henry II. and Philip II. for the massacre of the French and Dutch Protestants. Struggle between Protestants and Catholics. The nobles protested to Duchess Margaret against the Inquisition and Spanish troops. The "beggars" were organized. Philip proved obdurate and the storm burst.

1567–1648. *Counts Egmont and Hoorn* were beheaded and William of Orange outlawed. Duchess Margaret retired. Alva was made governor-general. Battle of Heiliger Lee, the "Beggars" under Louis of Nassau defeated the Spaniards. William became a Protestant. Capture of Brill by the "Beggars of the Sea," other towns raised the Orange colors. Alva's attack on Narden. Seven months' siege of Haarlem. Alkmaar attacked by Don Frederic cut its dykes. Alva succeeded by de Requesens. Siege and rescue of Leyden. Founding of its University 1575. Don John of Austria becomes governor-general. Formation of the Union of Utrecht 1579. Seven provinces: Holland, Utrecht, Zeeland, Overyssel, Gelderland, Friesland and Groningen. They deposed Philip in 1581 and became The Dutch Republic. William of Orange assassinated 1584. Elizabeth of England aided the Dutch with men and money. Maurice, son of William, continued the war. Dutch East India Company formed in 1602. Dutch traders and wise administration at home helped to sustain the Republic through the long war. The Dutch built dykes and reclaimed new land. A truce with Spain for twelve years began in 1609. Troubles over state rights and religious freedom beset the Republic, Maurice representing the National party, John of Barneveld the State rights element. The situation complicated with religious controversies. Synod of Dort in 1618 called by Maurice, ostensibly religious but really political. The National party triumphed and John of Barneveld was executed. Frederick Henry succeeded his brother Maurice in 1625. The struggle with Spain closed in 1648.

1650–1672. *The stadtholders were set aside* and John De Witt ruled as "Grand Pensionary." Cromwell's navigation acts precipitated a struggle with England. De Ruyter, Tromp and other heroes achieved notable victories for the Dutch. Louis XIV. of France captured the Southern Netherlands belonging to Spain, but the Triple Alliance of Holland, England and Sweden kept him in check until its dissolution in 1672,

when the French fell upon the defenceless republic, seizing Guelders, Overyssel and Utrecht. The people in wrath rose upon De Witt and tore him and his brother to pieces.

1672-1713. *William III., the last of the Orange-Nassau family*, was elected and defeated the French. Became king of England in 1688. Joined with the Dutch in opposing the encroachments of France At his death in 1702 his cousin, John William Friso, became president. The Dutch took part in the War of the Spanish Succession and Utrecht was chosen for the peace congress in 1713. The eighteenth century marks the decline of the republic. The French Republicans captured the country in 1795, founding the "Batavian Republic" under R. J. Schimmelpenninck as Grand Pensionary. Napoleon's brother, Louis Bonaparte, king of Holland from 1806-1810.

1813-1908. *The French driven out by the Dutch* with the help of Russia and Prussia. The Congress of Vienna, 1815, united the Belgian provinces with Holland under King William I., son of William V., the last stadtholder. In 1830 the Belgian provinces revolted. King William succeeded by William II. and William III. and the latter in 1890 by Wilhelmina, the queen mother serving as regent until 1898. In 1901 Wilhelmina married Henry, Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, who was created Prince of the Netherlands.

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

Several members engaged in earnest conversation attracted the attention of the Round Table as the delegates leisurely took their places. "If I had been in his position," one of them was saying, "I certainly should have acted in the same way, Turkey or no Turkey." Then the speaker, whose attitude suggested the Declaration of Independence, suddenly came to herself. "I'm afraid my fellow members of the Round Table," she laughed, "will think I'm waxing belligerent over plans for Thanksgiving, but as a matter of fact we were only discussing the Balkan situation! My family seem disposed to think that the Modern European year has gone to my head, but really they enjoy my pursuit of European news and one of my boys stands by bravely. He used to turn to the sporting column in the paper the first thing in the morning, but now he hunts up the foreign items first and we all discuss them together. When the proper names baffle our efforts at pronunciation I assign different words to each member of the household and sometime before breakfast the next morning we are sure to hear the result. We have bought the Century Cyclopedia of names and it already shows signs of wear. We made a sloping shelf for it in a convenient place and it seems almost like a member of the family. I haven't done any serious study for years and I'm really renewing my youth."

"Some of you who have read the life of Alice Freeman Palmer," said Pendragon, "may recall a very apt sentence in which Professor Palmer referred to Mrs. Palmer's adaptability. He said, 'What was peculiar in her was small. She chiefly distinguished

herself by wise ways of confronting the usual world.' It's a good phrase for us to bear in mind as we go into our new year of work. To confront our own environment wisely is possible to every one even if our talents are limited. It means foresight and careful weighing of claims instead of 'plunging' as many of us do. Then we excuse ourselves as 'too busy.' There are people who even find themselves too busy to read the daily paper and then they have a sense of being out of touch with things and their daily thinking is affected by it. The effect of just this one bit of foresight is to produce in us a sense of pressure and unrest. Let us plan this year to confront our usual world with all the wisdom we possess."

"This Round Table," he continued, "is necessarily a somewhat 'mixed affair' for there are some reports left over from the summer and we don't want to lose them. First, however, let me say that our new year is opening up with great promise. The enrollment is running well ahead of last year and the circumference of the circle is widening. Splendid work was done at many of the summer Chautauquas. Here for instance is the program of the Winfield Chautauqua banquet. Rev. D. W. Howell, Chautauqua's general secretary, who was present, reports that the occasion was a delightful one. If it was half as pleasant as one of its predecessors which I had the privilege of attending in the summer of '95 it was one of the best things of the assembly. Miss Meddie Hamilton, who has charge of the C. L. S. C. Round Table at four assemblies has a positive genius for awakening interest in home study. More than four hundred readers have been reported through her this summer and very many of them belong to the new class of 1912. At Ottawa, Sterling, and Cawker City, Kansas, and at Pontiac, Illinois, she has established a deep-down enthusiasm for the permanent features of Chautauqua work and has moreover trained and started on similar lines several other workers."

"This copy of *The Chautauquan Weekly*, which is published at Chautauqua throughout the year, you will notice, gives an extended account of the celebration of Opening Day, October 1st, when the Bryant bell rings in the new C. L. S. C. year. The earliest C. L. S. C. tradition is that 'Wherever they may be, true Chautauquans can hear its echoes.' The Bryant bell was never rung more vigorously than on the present occasion and doubtless even our members in the antipodes heard its distant tones. Let me give you the setting of the scene from *The Weekly:*

The weather last Thursday morning was like the coming year—full of promise and of hope, with flashes of fulfillment as the sun shone out brightly now and then.

The procession, two by two, wound down the hill from the Colonnade with the two daughters of Mr. S. D. Chaney of Cookman Avenue on their ponies as a vanguard. Dr. S. H. Day, the Marshal of the Day, came next with Mr. Charles Gill, the Chairman of the exercises at the Pier; and they were followed by four-score C. L. S. C. students—men and women, undergraduates, present workers, and members of the Society of the Hall in the Grove. There was a group of young ladies from Westfield and there were men and women of advancing years who proudly wore their badges of the Class of '82, and there were all sorts of intermediate ages. No one not within the charmed

Circle was admitted this year, so that every one knew that his neighbor, whether from a nearby town or from a distant state was or had been a co-worker with himself in courses whose continuance the day celebrated.

The procession gathered on the south gallery of the Pier, and Mr. Gill announced the first song—an old Chautauqua favorite—"The Winds are Whispering." Rev. J. M. Bray offered prayer.

Mr. Gill, in the absence of Mrs. Blichfeldt, read the poem written by Mrs. Grace Livingston Hill Lutz for this same function last year, opening with the stanza,

Temples and halls are silent now
The forest aisles alone,
The hush of Fall is over all,
The multitudes are gone.
But hark! thro' all the quiet paths,
A bell peals clear and true,
Its echoes sound the world around,
Across the waters blue.

At the summons of the poet's lines the bell, its rope touched by the hands of every one of the throng, sent its music across the waters of the Lake—and the new C. L. S. C. year had begun.

The banquet room to which the members adjourned revealed in all its appointments the creditable work of the committees. The hall was decorated with autumn flowers and with pictures of birds of the locality painted by the artist, Miss Hazen, Portraits of the founders of Chautauqua, Lewis Miller and Bishop Vincent, also emphasized the character of the occasion. Mr. Bestor, General Director of Chautauqua, carried out his rôle of toastmaster with skill and enthusiasm, putting each speaker *en rapport* with his environment. Mr. Blichfeldt of the Extension Department in responding to the topic, "Circling Circles," portrayed the situation with delicate humor: "Chautauqua Circles," he said, "call up a definite picture, a group of people arranged after the form of the highest emblem—the cipher—and engaged in the interchange of wit and other soul commodities. But 'Circling Circles' are different. C. L. S. C. Circles do not circle; they sit. But 'Circling Circles' have progressive influence, and in that sense C. L. S. C Circles do circle." On that very morning, Mr. Blichfeldt said he had received at the office a letter asking for information from a person who had become interested in the Reading Course through the same C. L. S. C. member in Mexico who had first roused Mr. Blichfeldt's interest.

"There must be a reason for the persistency and the increase of the Circles and for their enthusiasm in the work. First, the C. L. S. C. offers good stuff; and second, it is carried on because of the sincerity of the propagandists. In recommending it we are recommending what we believe in and what we do not tire of but keep up year after year. The Circles circle because of the devotion of those who believe in the Chautauqua Idea and because of their willingness to propagate it."

The delegate from the Plus Ultra Circle of Jamestown responded to the next toast on the Europe of Today and told of the proposed plans for the work of this progressive circle. Mrs. Day, president of the A. M. Martin Circle of Chautauqua, reminded her audience of their indebtedness to the Dutch, telling a number of amusing anecdotes of her sojourn in Holland and referring to our inheritance of the Dutch stoop, the Dutch settle, the Dutch oven, and the danger, if her toast proved distasteful, of being talked to "like a Dutch uncle!" Mrs. Estelle Rood, of the Westfield Circle, made a bright little speech on "What we owe to Europe," tracing our indebtedness to the various races and in the last analysis to Chautauqua for helping us to appreciate our obligations. Mr. Bray, Managing Editor of The Chautauqua Press, gave some impressions of his recent trip to Europe where he gathered a large number of the illustrations which will appear in THE CHAUTAUQUAN during the coming year. To Miss Teal, a member of the local Chautauqua Circle, was assigned the subject "As we see Others," which she treated humorously, and the program closed with Dr. Day's "The Newness of the New," wherein Esperanto was made to do duty as a Chautauqua language. Circles from Jamestown, Westfield, and Mayville were represented by considerable delegations and there were visiting Chautauquans from Ashville and Buffalo, New York, Bedford, Indiana, Beaver, and Linwood, Pennsylvania, and Kirkville, Missouri.

Pendragon indicated a photograph attached to a bulletin board. "You have doubtless noticed this," he said. "It represents a group of Urbana, Illinois, readers taken on the occasion of their class day exercises last June. You will remember that we had a report of the graduate circle at our June meeting. This group includes the graduates of 1908, of whom there were seventeen, and members of both the graduate and undergraduate circles. Notice the tasteful little gray program, the class color, tied with the garnet which indicates a graduate. Here is the program which makes us all wish we might have been present:

PART I.

Hymn—"Strong Son of God".....Tennyson's In Memoriam

Quartette.

Recognition Service.....Mrs. Elvira McElfresh and Class
Chautauqua Song.....Wm. F. Sherwin, '77
Class History.....Miss Mattie A. Lemon
Class Poem—Tennyson's "Ulysses".....Mrs. Lillian McCain Gilmer
Piano Duet—"Bucephale".....Mrs. Carrie L. Campbell and daughter
Class Prophecy.....Mrs. Nettie Hunt
Vocal Solo—Merry Maiden Spring—MacDowell.....Miss Luvilla B. Carson
Presentation of Wreath.....Mrs. Hortense C. Barr
Response—Class 1910.....Mrs. Addie McClelland Page
Notes from Alumnae.....Mrs. Clara Y. Shaw
Class Song..... Quartette

C. L. S. C. Round Table

PART II.

"A Day at the Know-it-all Woman's Club"

by MARY MONCURE PARKER

PLACE—Home of President. TIME—Monday Afternoon.

DRAMATIS PERSONAE.

Mrs. Wisdom—President.....Miss Fleming
Mrs. Chiffon.....Mrs. Woolman
Mrs. Pusher.....Mrs. Hunt
Mrs. By-Laws.....Mrs. Jones
Miss Antequate.....Mrs. VanDoren
Mrs. Lorgnette.....Miss Carson
Mrs. Manley.....Mrs. Gilmer
Mrs. Philan Thrope.....Mrs. Percival
Miss Annual.....Mrs. Campbell
Mrs. Would-be Vice-President.....Miss Alice Lemon
Dr. Molly Cule.....Mrs. Watts
Mary Ann.....Mrs. Conklin

Reporters, Visitors, Servants.

"The entire program and the play were a great success and the pleasant social atmosphere of a private house gave to the gathering, though a large one, a cozy character. The graduate circle is taking up work in English Literature this year under one of the university professors and the undergraduates with the inspiration of this fine large '08 class behind them will assuredly make a fine record."

"Another echo of the summer comes in a note from Miss Otis of the Vincent Circle, the oldest circle of Des Moines. This circle has for many years been devoting itself to the study of Shakespeare. She writes, 'We have had a fine circle of eleven this year and have done good work on Henry V. and VI. You may be interested in our "finishing up" on April 23. For the last sixteen years I have celebrated the birthday of our friend William by giving a party with a suitable program. This year the circle gave the comic parts of "Midsummer Night's Dream" in a very creditable manner. We took the scene where the mechanicals meet to plan for the play; the wood where they practice and Bottom is transformed and Titania falls in love with him; further plans for the play and its performance before the Duke. Those who had seen it on the stage thought we were fully up to the mark and I felt very proud of them all!' "

"I fear we must postpone further comments till another meeting," said Pendragon, "but as you leave look over this small brown pamphlet on the table. The new year book of the Round Table Circle of Kokomo, Indiana. This pile of newspaper clippings you will see shows that circles are organizing and reorganizing everywhere."

Lectures on Modern Europe

One of the lecturers and Round Table speakers at Chautauqua this summer was Dr. Henry Zick, a native of Heidelberg, Germany, and graduate of its university. He is one of the lecturers of the Boards of Education in New York and vicinity and for the American Society of University-Teaching. Circles near New York may be glad to untilize this opportunity for securing one or more illustrated lectures on the subjects of the current year's course. Dr. Zick has traveled widely, and his lectures are the result of both study and observation. Dr. Zick will make special rates to small centers. Details can be arranged on writing to the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y. Three series of lectures which can be given singly or in groups are offered.

EUROPEAN HISTORY. FOUR LECTURES.

1. Dr. Martin Luther and the Moral Regeneration of Europe.

A presentation of Luther's Life and Work and the Widespread Influence of the Reformatory Movement of the Sixteenth Century. 70 pictures.

2. The French Revolution and the Political Regeneration of Europe.

A presentation of the causes, the progress and the effect of the gigantic upheaval of the years 1789 to 1795, and the march of political liberty through Europe. 100 pictures.

3. Napoleon, the Man of Destiny.

A presentation of the career of the great conqueror and statesman. The benefits he worked for Europe in spite of himself and an estimate of the lasting good he conferred on France and the world. 100 pictures.

4. Germany's Struggle for Unification and the Franco-Prussian War.

A presentation of the making of the New German Empire and the ascendency of the German race in Europe and a thrilling account of the great war of 1870–71. 70 pictures.

GLIMPSES OF EUROPE AND EUROPEAN LIFE.

1. Imperial Berlin and Royal Potsdam.

A description of Germany's capital, its streets, buildings, life; a lesson in municipal government; a visit to Sans-Souci, the summer residence of Frederick the Great and William II. 80 pictures.

2. The Kaiser's Army and Navy, and Military Life in Germany.

A description of the military and naval establishment of the foremost military power in Europe and the Life in the Army. The latter is based on the lecturer's personal experience. 80 pictures.

3. The Picturesque Rhine and Peasant Life in the Black Forest.

A description of the gem of rivers; its cities and castles; its legends and its people; and of peasant life in the Black Forest, the most picturesque woodland country in South Germany. 80 pictures.

4. Heidelberg Castle, the Pearl of Ruins, and Student Life in Dear Old Heidelberg.

A description of Heidelberg, one of the most beautiful places in the whole wide world, and of the castle, the gem of ruins; how Germany's youth studies and has a good time at the same time. 80 pictures.

5. Paris, the Queen of Cities.

A description of the "ville lumière," the city beautiful, of its historical buildings, its lovely streets, its wonderful vistas and its momentous historical associations. 80 pictures.

6. Rome, the Eternal City.

A description of Roma Immortalis, her historical monuments, her present day beauty, her eternal charm as the conqueror of the world through her armies, her laws, her church. 80 pictures.

7 Naples and Pompeii, or the Siren City and the City of the Dead.

A description of Naples and its bay; its life and picturesque streets; of Vesuvius and Capri's gem, the blue grotto, and of Pompeii, a typical Roman town, preserved not destroyed by Vesuvius.

Esperanto News

Details concerning the fourth international Congress have come at last and confirm the good news which had come in through the Associated Press. Fifteen hundred Esperantists took possession of Dresden for a week and some very serious business was transacted, foremost of which stands the formation of an Academy which will rule on points of grammar and upon the admissibility of new words into the language. Twelve academicians were elected: Messrs. Boirac, Bein, Cart, Grabowski, Moch de Saussure, Nylén, Mybs, Villanueva, Wackrill, Ellis, and Evstifeieff. That is four Frenchmen, two Poles, one Swede, one German, one Spaniard, two Englishmen, and one Russian. This Academy met and organized four permanent sections: 1—grammar, 2—ordinary dictionary, 3—technical dictionary, 4—general affairs.

THE FIFTH CONGRESS.

Two nations contended for the fifth congress, the United States and Spain. In a spirit of enthusiasm and without stopping to consider the result, the fourth congress

decided that two congresses might take place in 1909, namely, one in Chautauqua and one in Barcelona, and that the dates could be arranged by agreement with these two countries. This is manifestly unfair to both applicants, for, if there is to be an international congress in Barcelona a few weeks after the congress at Chautauqua it is evident that many Europeans would avoid the greater expense of time and money by not coming to Chautauqua and going to Barcelona instead and those who would have spent the time and money to come here would scarcely afford to go to Barcelona a few weeks later. A brisk correspondence is now passing between the Central Office in Paris and the office of the executive committee of the Esperanto Association of North America upon this subject, and we hope that in the next issue we shall be able to announce that the Barcelona Congress has been postponed so as not to interfere with the Chautauqua Congress.

THE ESPERANTO ASSOCIATION OF NORTH AMERICA.

The preparations for the coming congress are in the hands of the Esperanto Association of North America which resulted from the convention of Esperantists held in Chautauqua last summer. The official address of this Association is 3981 Langley Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. Colonel George Harvey, Editor of the *North American Review*, has been elected president of the Association, Professor A. M. Grillon, vice-president, Mr. E. C. Reed, secretary, and Mr. E. K. Harvey, treasurer.

THE PROGRESS OF THE ASSOCIATION HAS BEEN REMARKABLE.

During July, when propaganda was inactive, there were 22 new members, in August, 55, during September, 122, and in October, up to date, 235. This, without the great movement which is taking place among the clubs who are just beginning to hold their meetings and who are holding back so as to join in a body, so that everything indicates that the membership will grow at the rate of 500 a month during the winter.

In order to make the Fifth International Congress what it should be, that is, the largest congress of Esperantists ever held, the Esperanto Association of North America need the good-will of all and specially of all those who are interested in having Chautauqua selected as the place for this great international gathering. The cost of joining the Association is only twenty-five cents a year and entails no obligation on the part of the member. If you send your name and address and twenty-five cents to the secretary, Mr. E. C. Reed, 3981 Langley Avenue, Chicago, you will help to bring about the congress and help the Association in its propaganda work.

A Short Course in Esperanto

THIRD LESSON.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Fire at Chautauqua destroyed all accented Esperanto type which must be especially cast for us. Hence these reprinted pages contain no accented

letters this month. New type with proper accents will be manufactured for us to use in the December issue.

LA TUALETO.	THE TOILET.
La servistino supreniras al la unua etago,	The maid goes up to the first floor,
si eniras en la cambron de la infano,	she enters the room of the child,
si trairas la cambron,	she crosses the room,
si iras al la fenestro,	she goes to the window,
si malfermas la kurtenojn,	she opens the curtains,
Radio da suno penetras en la cambron.	a beam of sunlight enters the room.
La servistino vokas la knabon,	The maid calls the boy,
la knabo ne respondas,	the boy does not answer,
tial ke li dormas.	because he sleeps.
La servistino alproksimigas al la lito,	The maid draws near the bed,
si prenas la knabon per la sultro,	she takes the boy by the shoulder,
si skuas la infanon.	she shakes the child.
La infano malfermas la okulojn,	The child opens his eyes,
li oscedas,	he yawns,
li sin strecas,	he stretches himself,
li remetas la kapon sur sian kapkusenon,	he puts his head back on his pillow,
li reekdormas.	he goes to sleep again.
La servistino skuas la infanon ankorau unufoje,	The maid shakes the child once more,
la infano vekigas tute vere,	the child wakes up in earnest,
li sin decidas,	he makes up his mind,
li forjetas la litkovrilojn,	he throws the covers aside,
li saltas el la lito.	he jumps out of bed.
Liaj subvestoj trovigas sur sego,	His underclothes are on a chair,
li alpasas al la sego,	he steps up to the chair,
li alvenas al la sego,	he arrives at the chair,
li prenas siajn subvestojn,	he takes his underclothes,
li revenas al la lito,	he goes back to the bed,
li sidigas sur la randon de la lito.	he sits down on the edge of the bed.
Li prenas sian kalsonon,	He takes his drawers,
li vestas sian kalsonon.	he puts on his drawers.
Li prenas strumpon,	He takes one stocking,
li pasigas la piedon en la strumpon,	he passes his foot into the stocking,
li tiras la strumpon.	he pulls on the stocking.

La strumpo kovras ciujn partojn de lia piedo,	The stocking covers all the parts of his foot,
la strumpo kovras lian kruron gis la supro de la genuo,	the stocking covers his leg to over the knee,
li ellasas la strumpon,	he lets go the stocking,
li prenas la alian strumpon,	he takes the other stocking,
li surmetas la alian strumpon lau la sama maniero.	he puts on the other stocking in the same way.
Li prenas la strumpligilojn,	He takes his garters,
li stopligas la strumpligilojn cirkau la strumpoj,	he ties his garters around his stockings,
li ellasas la strumpligilojn.	he lets go his garters.
Lia pantalono kusas sur sego,	His trousers lie on a chair,
li eletendas la brakon al gi,	he stretches out his arm towards them,
li prenas la pantalonon,	he takes his trousers,
li vestas la pantalonon,	he puts on his trousers,
li krocas la zomunon de tiu ci vesto.	he hooks the bands of that garment.
Farinte tion,	Having done this,
li surmetas siajn selkojn.	he puts on his suspenders.
Tio volas diri:	This means:
li pasigas la selkojn super la sultrojn,	he passes his suspenders over his shoulders,
li butonumas la selkojn malantauen,	he buttons his suspenders behind,
li iom tiras la selkojn antauen,	he pulls his suspenders forward a little,
li butonumas la selkojn antauen,	he buttons his suspenders forward,
li ellasas la selkojn.	he lets go his suspenders.
Li sercas siajn pantoflojn,	He looks for his slippers,
li genufleksas apud la lito,	he kneels by the bed,
li rigardas sub la liton,	he looks under the bed,
li vidas la pantoflojn,	he sees his slippers,
li eletendas la brakon,	he stretches out his arm,
li prenas la pantoflojn,	he takes his slippers,
li relevigas,	he straightens up,
li piedvestas siajn pantoflojn.	he puts on his slippers.

TABLE OF CORRELATIVE WORDS.

	Indefinite.	*Distributive, General or Collective.*	*Interrogative and Relative.*	*Negative.*	*Demonstrative*
Quality. kind of (adjectival)	*IA* some kind of (any) kind of some (any)	*CIA* every kind of each, every (any sort of)	*KIA* what kind of? of what kind? what a! ... as	*NENIA* no kind of no, no such of no kind (not any kind of)	*TIA* such kind of such a of that kind
Motive. Reason for (adverbial)	*IAL* for some reason for (any) reason or cause	*CIAL* for every reason for all reasons	*KIAL* for what reason why? wherefore	*NENIAL* for no reason for no cause	*TIAL* for that reason for such a reason therefore
Time. (adverbial)	*IAM* at some time at (any) time ever	*CIAM* always every time for all time ever (at any time)	*KIAM* at what time? when	*NENIAM* at no time never	*TIAM* at that time at such time then
Place. (adverbial)	*IE* in some place in (any) place somewhere (anywhere)	*CIE* everywhere in every place (anywhere)	*KIE* in what place where	*NENIE* in no place nowhere (not anywhere)	*TIE* in that place there yonder

Manner (adverbial)	*IEL* in some way (in any manner) somehow (anyhow)	*CIEL* (in) every manner (in) every way all ways	*KIEL* in what manner how .... as like	*NENIEL* in no manner in no way nohow by no means not at all	*TIEL* in that manner thus, so, like (that) as .... in such a manner
Possession (pronominal)	*IES* somebody's (anybody's) (any one's)	*CIES* every one's each one's	*KIES* whose	*NENIES* no one's nobody's	*TIES* that one's such a one's
Thing (not specified) substantival or pronominal	*IO* something (anything)	*CIO* everything all things all	*KIO* what (thing) which that which	*NENIO* nothing not anything	*TIO* that (thing)
Quantity (adverbial)	*IOM* some quantity somewhat rather, some a little (any)	*CIOM* every quantity all, the whole all of it	*KIOM* what quantity how much how many	*NENIOM* no quantity none none at all	*TIOM* that quantity so much as much as many so many
Individuality Person or thing (pronominal)	*IU* some one (any one)	*CIU* each one each *ciuj*—all, all the.. everybody	*KIU* who, he who which, that what one	*NENIU* nobody no one	*TIU* that one the former

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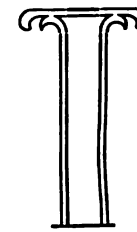

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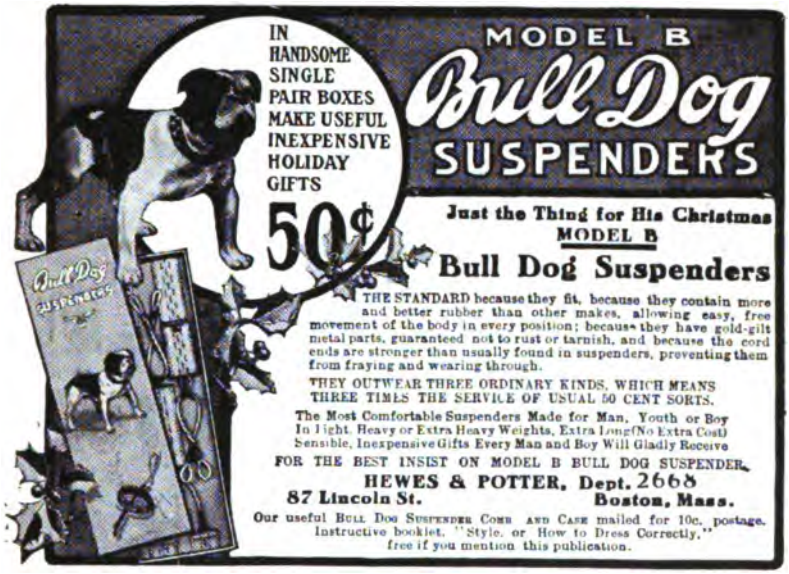
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